

The Historical Outlook

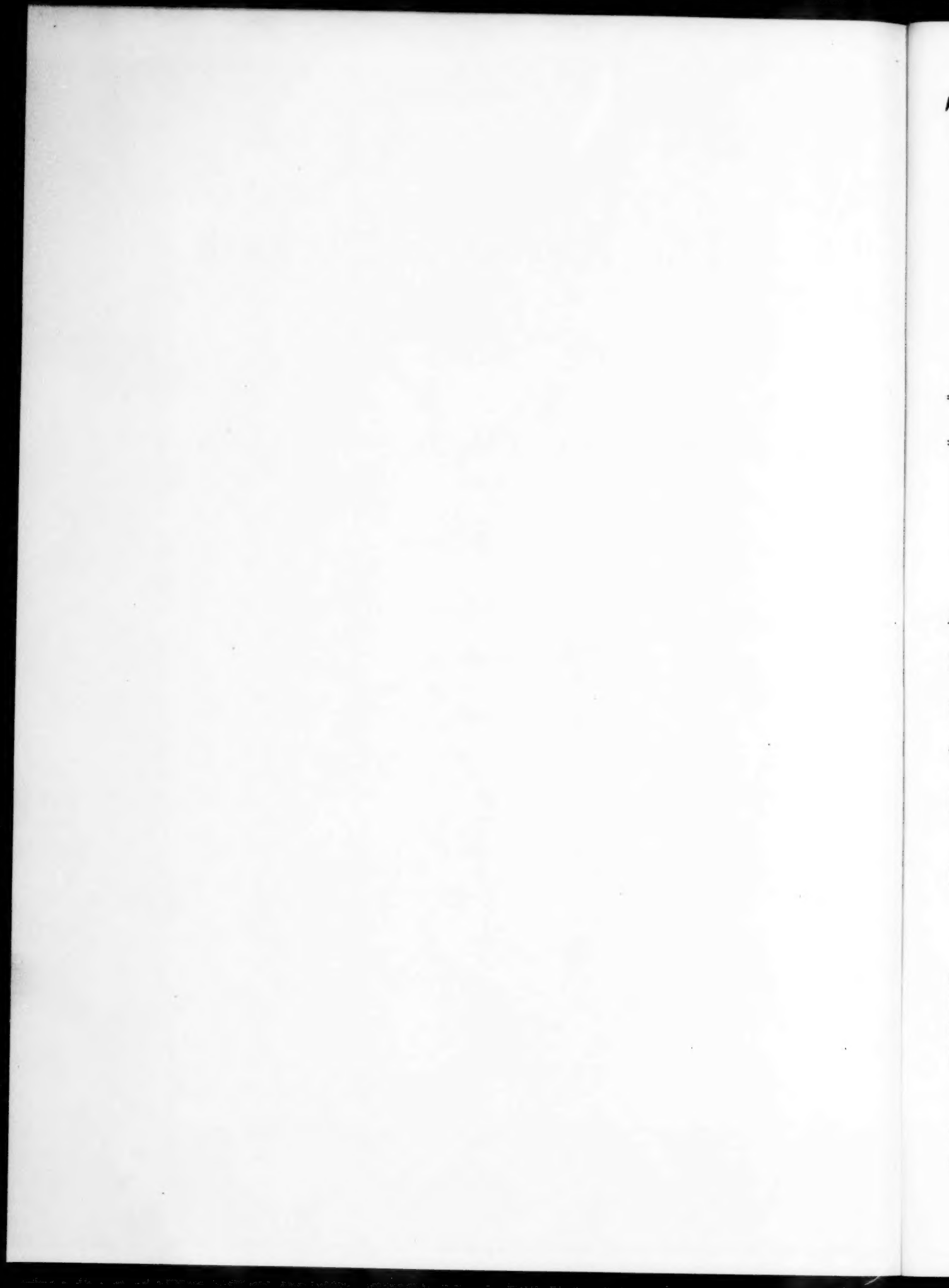
Continuing

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The Historical Outlook

A JOURNAL FOR

READERS AND TEACHERS OF HISTORY AND THE SOCIAL STUDIES

Continuing The History Teacher's Magazine

EDITED IN CO-OPERATION WITH A

COMMITTEE OF THE NATIONAL COUNCIL FOR THE SOCIAL STUDIES

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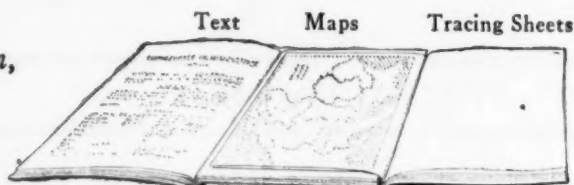
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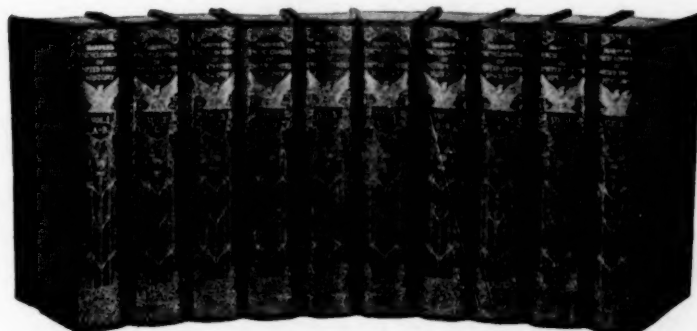
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Antedating the Founding Fathers

BY PROFESSOR ERNEST RALPH PERKINS, NORWICH UNIVERSITY, NORTHFIELD, VT.

I

"Shall we be bound to the government and lordship of a Parliament in which we have no representatives or persons chosen by us? In truth this would be slavery far exceeding that the English nation has yet suffered. And we doubt not but the courage which has brought us thus far out of our own country to seek our beings and livelihoods in this wild country will maintain us in our freedoms, without which our lives will be uncomfortable to us."

In these words Lord Willoughby, royalist governor of Barbadoes, but a veteran of the English Civil War on the parliamentary side, sounded the keynote of American liberties in 1650, a century and a quarter before Jefferson penned the immortal Declaration, long before Rousseau was born, and when John Locke was a lad of eighteen. The Founding Fathers could place their feet not only on the basis of the social contract, but firmly on the sound precedents established by the early settlers. The story of parliament's first claims to authority over the plantations and the sturdy resistance of the colonies is an important, but little known, chapter in American history.

Prior to the Civil War parliament had exercised no control in colonial affairs. The plantations in America had started as commercial enterprises on grants or charters from the king. It was not until several years after the original settlements that the political aspects received serious attention and efforts were made to bring the colonies more directly under royal control. The charter of the Virginia Company was forfeited and the colony made a royal province. The Massachusetts charter was annulled in England, but it was not surrendered by the colony. An effort at unifying colonial control was made by the establishment of a committee of the Privy Council for dealing with matters relating to the plantations both on the coasts of America and in the West Indies.

As parliament gained in power and the plantations grew in importance it was inevitable that sooner or later it would attempt to encroach on the prerogative of the crown in colonial matters. The Civil War brought the issue suddenly to the fore as a practical problem. It could not be expected that parliament would either allow the colonies to remain under the jurisdiction of the crown or to become independent of the realm of England. As a matter of fact parliament not only claimed the authority over the plantations which the king has previously exercised, but attempted to carry still further the policy of more direct and concentrated control already started. In

1643 the report of a committee of the Commons resulted in the passage of the "Ordinance for the government of the plantations in the West Indies." The title is misleading, for the act applied to the "coasts of Amrica" as well as to the islands, and so included all English settlements in the New World. By this act Robert Earl of Warwick was made "Governor in Chief and Lord High Admiral," and a commission was appointed to join him in the government. They were to have authority "in all affairs as concern the welfare and safety" of the plantations, power to appoint all subordinate governors and officers, and the right to hand over to the inhabitants of the colonies such powers of government as they saw fit. The right to annul charter and proprietary grants was clearly implied even without judicial action. This was later actually done in the case of Barbadoes and considered in the case of Maryland. The clause giving the commission the right to delegate authority was a saving feature. When concessions were made to the colonies it is at times difficult to determine what was a matter of free grace and how much was due to the inability of parliament to make good its claims.

Later acts declared the plantations to be part of the realm of England and subject to the jurisdiction of its government. With the triumph of the Commonwealth at home there came a tendency to regard the colonies as strictly subordinate to the interests of England. The commercial class was in power and they dreamed of an empire economically independent of all foreign countries. With this end in mind a council for the regulating of trade was created: "to take into their consideration the English plantations in America or elsewhere, and to advise how these plantations may be best managed and made the most useful for this Commonwealth: and how the commodities thereof may be so multiplied and improved as (if it is possible) those plantations alone may supply the Commonwealth of England with whatsoever it necessarily wants."

But before you have your feast it is necessary to catch your bird. Virginia and the West Indies were royalist strongholds and had not as yet submitted to parliament. So on October 3, 1650, an act was passed for the reduction of these plantations to submission. Trade with Virginia, Barbadoes, Bermuda, Antego, and other islands was forbidden as long as they should remain in hostility to parliament. They were declared to be: "Colonies and plantations which were planted at the cost and settled by the people, and by the authority of this nation, which are and ought to be

subject to such laws, orders, and regulations as are or shall be made by the Parliament of England." It was this sweeping claim of parliamentary authority which called forth Lord Willoughby's declaration before quoted.

In this law also was a provision prohibiting the ships of any foreign nation to trade with any English colony without license from parliament or the Council of State, and the next year colonial trade was still further regulated by the so-called First Navigation Act.

If these claims and exercise of authority by parliament had passed unquestioned in the colonies a strong basis would have been laid for later parliamentary jurisdiction, for the Americans could hardly have denied as unjust powers in a *de jure* parliament which they had freely conceded to a revolutionary government. For the answer to the question of how far the claims of the Commonwealth were conceded we must turn to the dealings of that government with the separate colonies. These may be divided into two classes: New England, which was friendly to the Puritan cause in England and recognized parliament from the outbreak of the Civil War as the legitimate home government; and Virginia, Maryland, and the West Indian plantations, which sided with the king and only yielded allegiance to parliament as a matter of necessity after the complete triumph of the parliamentary party in England.

II

The strong sympathy of Massachusetts for the Puritan cause is well known, but her zeal for independence from the control of her friends in England was equally notable. As early as February 2, 1641, Winthrop made the following entry in his Journal:

"Upon the great liberty which the king had left the parliament to in England, some of our friends there wrote to us advise to send over some to solicit for us in Parliament, giving us hope that we might obtain much, etc. But consulting about it we declined the motion for this consideration, we must then be subject to all such laws as they should make, or at least such as they might impose upon us, in which course they should intend our good, yet it might prove very prejudicial to us."

Massachusetts repudiated the authority of Charles I before the Parliamentarians at home had foresworn allegiance to the king against whom they were fighting. In June, 1643, the governor and magistrates were released from taking oath of allegiance to the king. But the people of the Bay Colony were Yankees as well as Puritans and their thrift overcame their sympathy to the extent of continuing trade with the English ports under royal control. This led to the first real issue as to parliamentary authority when a Bristol ship was seized in Boston harbor by a London vessel holding a commission from Warwick. Numerous protests were made. The governor and council took the matter under consideration and finally decided to allow the capture. From Winthrop's account we find that opinion was sharply divided as to the right of Massachusetts to interfere, and the

constitutional argument as reported in his Journal is extremely interesting. The action of the governor and council appeared to be based on the necessity of maintaining friendly relations with parliament, but they apparently felt bound to justify on legal grounds their yielding in this case without conceding too much for the future. "This could be no precedent to bar us from opposing any commission or other foreign power that might indeed tend to our hurt and violate our liberty; for the Parliament had taught us that *salus populi is suprema lex*." A direct legal decision was avoided by persuading the owners of goods in the captured vessel to forego court action on the agreement of the governor and council to certify the facts to parliament, pointing out that the goods and vessel were owned by persons well disposed to the Puritan cause, in the hope that their losses would be reimbursed.

A different issue in regard to shipping was raised when parliament passed an act providing for free trade with New England, duties to be levied neither in England nor in the colonies. The magistrates immediately freed parliamentary ships from a tax imposed by the General Court, "and good reason, for by that order we might have gotten 20 or 30 pounds this year, and by the ordinance of Parliament we saved 3 or 400 pounds." In this action it cannot be said that Massachusetts yielded any constitutional authority to parliament. The Puritan Yankees simply knew a good bargain when they saw it.

The Gorton case brought the colony for the first time into a clash with the Parliamentary Commissioners for Plantations and called forth striking claims of independence on the part of the magistrates. The issue involved was the claim of Massachusetts to jurisdiction over Gorton and his associates who had settled on land which he claimed was beyond the boundaries of the colony. Gorton was exiled, but on his petition the Commissioners for Plantations considered the case. The magistrates objected to this as an infringement of their rights.

"Our allegiance binds us not to the laws of England any longer than we live in England," wrote Winthrop. Edward Winslow was sent to present the claims of the colony to the parliamentary government. His instructions reveal a conception of independence from English rule similar to that now enjoyed by the British self-governing dominions. "If you shall be demanded about these particulars: Why we make not out our process in the king's name? You shall answer that we should thereby waive the power of our government granted to us, for we claim not as by commission, but by a free donation of absolute government." "About a general governor." Answer, "Our charter gives us absolute power of government." "About our subjection to England." Answer, "1. We are to pay one-fifth part of ore of gold and silver: 2. In being faithful and firm to the state of England: endeavoring to walk with God in upholding His truth, etc., and praying for it: 3. In framing our government according to our patent, so near as we may."

Our Puritan forefathers seem to have been willing

to pray for England, but not to be governed by her. It must have been with a smile that the magistrates conceded to England a share in the gold and silver which by this time they were reasonably sure did not exist. The General Court also expressly denied the right of appeal to England.

The Commissioners decided favorably to Gorton and issued orders to Massachusetts not to infringe upon his settlement in Narragansett Bay and to allow Gorton and his associates to pass peaceably through the colony on their way to their home despite the sentence of banishment. To this Massachusetts yielded. The Commissioners, however, pointed out that it was not an internal question, but one of boundaries, and denied any desire to encourage appeals from the colony to England. About this time a Dr. Child and others were imprisoned and fined by the colonial court for attempting to send a petition to parliament asking protection of their rights in the colony.

We have seen how Massachusetts repealed her own customs levy in order to secure free trade with England. The colony likewise avoided an issue over the act of October 3, 1650, forbidding trade with Virginia and the West Indies by enacting a similar law on her own account. The penalty, however, was forfeiture of the ships and goods to Massachusetts rather than to England, and no notice was made of the clause in the act of parliament which forbade trade with any plantation by a foreign ship without license. The very fact that the General Court re-enacted, although modified, the act of parliament might be taken as an indication that the English law was not considered binding until confirmed by the colony. We later find Massachusetts, as a war measure, passing an act forbidding trade with the French and Dutch colonies. It is evident that the colony undertook to regulate its own commerce.

The war with the Dutch gave another striking example of independent attitude. William Hooke wrote a letter from New Haven to the Lord Protector asking for assistance from England, and also that Cromwell "command assistance be afforded from the Bay to the other three colonies in case of war with the Dutch." The appeal apparently had its effect, for the next year Major Robert Sedgwick was sent with an expedition to Boston with letters to the several governors in New England asking for colonial troops. His report is enlightening: "We immediately sent your highness letters to the several governors of the New England colonies and had full concurring from them all to assist against the Dutch, Massachusetts only accepted, who so far did concur as to give us liberty to your raising 500 volunteers amongst them." It was provided that the volunteers must be free from other legal engagements and Massachusetts did not offer to contribute any of the expense. News of peace prevented the expedition.

III

Generally the Commonwealth government seems to have recognized that more could be gained by the natural friendship of New England for the Puritan

cause than by coercive measures. New England was also fortunate in having strong friends in high places in England. Aside from New England the two most important English plantations at the time of the interregnum were Barbadoes and Virginia. In each of these colonies the government was in the hands of friends of the royalist cause, and in each of these cases relations with the home government ran a similar course. Neither submitted to the authority of parliament until the Commonwealth was firmly established, and each was able to win a recognition of important constitutional rights before making submission.

Up to 1650 Puritan and Royalist had lived in peace in Barbadoes, and any gentleman calling another "Cavalier" or "Roundhead" was required to give a dinner of pork and turkey to all within hearing. With the coming of many royalist exiles, persecution of the Puritan party began, but Lord Willoughby soon ousted the extreme faction from power and governed with the moderate royalists. Reports of the cruel measures taken against supporters of parliament and of the proclamation by Lord Willoughby of Charles II as king reached England about the same time. Late in 1650 an expedition was sent under command of Sir George Ascue to reduce Barbadoes to submission.

Although faced by a force of twelve ships and 2,000 soldiers, Lord Willoughby determined to resist. After a battle in which the royalists lost 50 killed and 170 prisoners the governor agreed to surrender, but not without winning for himself and the plantation extremely favorable terms. Lord Willoughby forfeited his proprietorship to the Commonwealth, but he was restored to his rights in England and to his estates. The other royalist adherents also received full pardon and restoration of rights and estates in England, Scotland, and Ireland, except where such restoration would interfere with the rights of third parties.

But it is the rights won for the colony that are most significant. A treaty between the rulers of the colony and the agents of the Commonwealth, later ratified by parliament, contained the following guarantees:

"That liberty of conscience in matters of religion be allowed to all excepting such tenets as are inconsistent to a civil government."

"That no taxes, customs, imposts, loans, or excise shall be laid, nor levy made on any of the inhabitants of this island without their consent in a general assembly."

"That all suits between party and party, and criminal and common pleas be determined here, and none be compelled to go to England to assert or defend their titles to any estates which they have here without the consent of the general assembly."

Other clauses provided for a governor appointed from England, a council chosen by the governor, and an assembly elected by the vote of the freeholders in the colony. "As great freedom of trade as ever" was also guaranteed. By accepting the surrender of Barbadoes on these terms parliament certainly retreated

considerably from its declaration that the plantations "are and ought to be subject to such laws as are or shall be made by the Parliament of England." Lord Willoughby had partially, at least, made good his claims for liberty. In this, as in later times, freedom from external taxation and from court appeals to England were among the most cherished of colonial rights.

IV

Similar to the history of Barbadoes during this period is that of Virginia. The Old Dominion was a royal province with a governor chosen by the king and an elective assembly. Its sympathies lay with the Cavalier cause, and in 1644 the House of Commons requested its committee of the navy to consider the best course for reducing the colony to obedience of parliament. No attempt was made apparently to follow up this resolution. Virginia, like Massachusetts, was willing to trade with both parties in England, for in the acts of 1644-1645 we find it voted: "That there be free trade and commerce allowed to all his majesty's subjects," pledging especially free and peaceable trade to London, the stronghold of the parliamentary forces.

When the news of the execution of Charles I and the overthrow of monarchy was received it became necessary for Virginia to take a definite stand. She decided in favor of royalty in open defiance of the law of parliament. An act was passed by the House of Burgesses declaring Charles had been king "by the law of nature and nations and the known laws of the kingdom of England—and the law of God Himself." To defend the proceedings against Charles I was to be *post factum* accessory to his death, and to doubt the right of succession of Charles II was high treason. To propose a change in the government of the colony or to express doubt of the power of the governor and his government was also treason. It is interesting to find in this colonial act an acceptance of the Stuart claim of divine right.

Under the authority of the act of parliament for the reduction of Virginia and Barbadoes to submission, a commission was sent with an expeditionary force against Virginia in 1651. Unlike Lord Willoughby, Governor Berkeley did not offer resistance with arms, but like him he was able to surrender on terms favorable to himself and the constitutional rights of the colony. The agreement took the form of a treaty between Virginia and England, signed by the Commissioners of the Council of State and by the Governor and Council. It was accepted as law in Virginia and referred to parliament for ratification. There it was received at the same time as the agreement with Barbadoes, but unlike that agreement was not passed in its original form. Many of the articles were accepted, but others were referred to the committee on the navy to prepare a suitable charter for the colony. This committee apparently made no report. It was a matter that would require considerable time owing to conflicting territorial claims of Virginia and Lord Baltimore. The follow-

ing year the Long Parliament was adjourned, and with it apparently ended consideration of the articles referred to its committee. In the meantime, Virginia was under a provisional government. Plans of Cromwell for a permanent government for the colony were prevented from taking effect on account of his death.

One of the clauses of the treaty ratified by parliament provided: "That the people of Virginia shall have free trade as the people of England do enjoy to all places and with all nations according to the laws of the Commonwealth of England." Thus parliament might pass commercial laws for the colony, but only so far as they applied equally to the home country. Two other issues of later times were contained in the provision, "That Virginia shall be free from all taxes, customs, and impositions whatsoever and none to be imposed on them without consent of the grand assembly, and that neither forts nor castles be erected or garrisons maintained without their consent." This article was referred without change to the committee to prepare the charter. That this did not mean intended rejection is indicated by the approval a few days before of the treaty providing for no taxation without colonial consent in the case of Barbadoes. By other clauses, all accepted by parliament, the submission was declared voluntary and not by conquest, the former government by commission from the king was declared void, the people were promised "such freedoms and privileges as belong to the free-born people of England," and various matters regarding the surrender of the government were decided. The personal rights of the governor and council were protected by a separate agreement.

V

A provisional government was agreed to by the commissioners of the Commonwealth and the Virginia House of Burgesses on April 30, 1652, Richard Bennett was chosen Governor, and William Clayborne Secretary of State. Both were commissioners from England. A council of state was also agreed upon. A law provided that the choice of all officers should be by the Burgesses, but that, "the present election of all officers not already constituted be referred to the said governor and commissioners and that this election be not precedential to any succeeding assembly." Thus the Burgesses lost the substance of power for the time being, but preserved their legal rights for the future. In form, at least, future elections of the governor were by the assembly, the council was confirmed or elected by it, and other officers of state were chosen by the same body.

This condition continued until the spring of 1658 when what amounted to a revolution occurred, the assembly taking the powers of government practically into its own hands. In April the governor and council dissolved the assembly. The Burgesses replied denying the power to dissolve. Any member departing was declared to be "censored as a person betraying his trust," and an oath of secrecy was taken. Governor Matthews yielded under pressure. A resolution was then adopted by the Burgesses: "That we have in

ourselves the full power of election and appointment of all officers in this country until such time as we shall have order to the contrary from the supreme power in England, all which is evident from the assembly records. That we are not dissolvable by any power yet extant in Virginia." The assembly then proceeded to declare the former election of the governor and council void. Matthews was re-elected governor, but a new council was chosen. The sheriffs were ordered not to act save on the authority of the speaker, and Secretary Clayborne was required to deliver his records to the assembly. In the oath prescribed for the governor he promised to act "for the good and welfare of this plantation of Virginia," no mention being made of England.

When informed of the death of Oliver Cromwell and the accession of Richard, the assembly voted unanimously to accept obedience to "His Highness, Richard, Lord Protector." This did not mean any real submission in government, and it seems likely that it was the condition in Virginia that called forth a resolution in parliament, May, 1659, for the "preservation of the jurisdiction of Parliament in the foreign plantations of this Commonwealth."

In the session of 1859-60 the Burgesses repudiated all parliamentary authority. The first act of the assembly read:

"Whereas by reason of the late frequent distractions there being in England no resident, absolute and generally confessed power; be it enacted and confirmed, That the supreme power of the government of this country shall be resident in the assembly, and that writs issue in the name of the Grand Assembly of Virginia, until such a command and commission come out of England as shall be by the assembly adjudged lawful."

The second act of the assembly was to elect Berkeley governor, "to govern according to the ancient laws

of England and the established laws of this country." The next important step was openly to defy trade restriction. Claiming "the privileges granted us by our articles of surrender to have free trade with all nations in amity with the people of England," which privilege had been violated by ships coming to trade, it was provided that all ships must give bond not to molest any vessel coming under the protection of the laws of Virginia. If bond were not given the ship was to be debarred from trade," common reason prohibiting those to have profit of trade that refuse to submit to the laws or endeavor to destroy the privileges of a country they trade with."

These acts of the Virginia assembly cannot be construed as a restoration of royal authority. Berkeley did not return as a royal governor, but as an elected official dependent upon the Burgesses. No attempt was made to proclaim Charles II until he was restored in England. From 1658 to the Restoration, Virginia was playing the part of an independent commonwealth within the British empire.

From this survey it appears that during the time of the Civil War and the Commonwealth when parliament made its first attempt to establish jurisdiction over the colonies, it met with but little success. No rights of general legislative power were conceded by Americans, whether friendly or hostile to the Puritan cause, and in many important points parliament explicitly yielded to colonial contentions. Issues regarding taxation, trade, appeal to England, and maintaining troops in the colonies were raised and generally settled in favor of the settlers. Until the course of events following Lexington and Concord made the demand for complete independence inevitable, the Founding Fathers of our country were demanding practically no rights which their forefathers had not maintained with considerable success over a hundred years earlier.

The Diary of the Itinerant Preacher as Source Material*

BY JULIE KOCH, ROOSEVELT HIGH SCHOOL, ST. LOUIS, MO.

Not so long ago a department store in St. Louis offered in a sale of used books part of the library of a sectarian college that flourished when Illinois was a frontier community, and commencement addresses were delivered on the gospel of abolition. When the local universities had made their selection, the remaining volumes, having ceased to attract a bidder at ten cents a copy, found their way into the furnace of the Salvation Army plant. Because those dusty brown volumes contained no political information, they were thrown on the dust heap; the philippics of the New versus the Old Lights, the arguments for and against plenary inspiration and the nature of Adam's sin have been forgotten in newer theological battles, but that library, offered for sale at a song, may, I think, have represented the best that Mr. Benedict, the leading

literary exponent of the Baptist faith in the fifties, could assemble for the beloved college of his friend, the Reverend Jesse Peck, of itinerant fame. A rescue party will not be amiss to scout for such books as these, so that when, in the coming years, the story of the religious history of America is unfolded, material will be available. If sociological background is an abused term, may one say that the chapter on the social psychology of religion is still to be written, and that a large share of the bibliography for it is in the journals of the early preacher? If biographies, unless conceived by able historians, are at best makeshifts, what can be said of those memoirs of these "Western Cavaliers," which were often tasks of love, performed by admiring partisan denominational writers with the gullibility of a Gregory of Tours. The great pity is

that the authors paraphrased the journals of their subjects and did not edit them; but the question is—where are these original manuscripts? Of autobiographies there are many, as I shall cite later on, but even the notes used for those collections are scattered to the far corners of the Mississippi Valley and no historical group has attempted to list their habitat as far as I have been able to learn.

These church fathers of a century ago did not attempt to evaluate, to offer critical interpretations or explanations; sometimes, especially on visits to Natchez or New Orleans, they wept over that land of Gemorrah that shocked them woefully, but they were viewing a Latin society through Puritanical lenses. The more educated ones, who were usually of the Presbyterian church, kept faithful accounts of the geography and customs of the country through which they journeyed, and of the people, Nordic, Latin, and Indian, with whom they came in contact as, for example, Reverend Timothy Flint and Elias Cornelius. The Methodists, less literary folk as a rule, and the Baptists, invariably so, were so intent upon their mission of saving souls that they forgot their surroundings, they offered prayers of thanksgiving for having saved their brethren from the tortures of a mediaeval hell. Thus we have the two types of narrative: the one objective, the other highly introspective. The two combined help to tell the story of how the wilderness was won over to the conventional God, and the frontiersman made to return to that accepted code of civilization from which his father thought he was escaping. Our interest in the journal of the early preacher is two-fold this afternoon; first to note a type of manuscript that contains historical evidence, and secondly to enumerate those autobiographies that may be used as source material in a high school class in American history with the objective of instilling an abiding affection for Mississippi Valley life and a sense of appreciation youth owes the church as an institution.¹

Let us begin with the neglected Negro. The history of his church is a story that ought to allure the student; we have but isolated bits of information. An early preacher of this race who deserves attention is David George,² a Baptist, who toured the Atlantic coast during the Revolutionary war after he had made his escape from a white master and had sought protection in the camp of the Creek chief. His freedom was due to the kindness or else military acumen of the British commander at Savannah who aided all black men to escape. After an unusual career of itinerancy, David George was sent to Africa as the moral leader of the colony then being settled in Sierra Leone, and after suffering many deprivations at the hands of hostile neighbors, whose ambition it was that this colonization project should fail, David George died in the land of his fathers. This is a résumé of the letters, which printed in Rippon's *Annual Register* for 1790, 1791, and 1792, he addressed to the Baptist headquarters in London responsible for the Sierra Leona undertaking, and they are as fascinating to read as the diary of his more illustrious contemporary,

Devereux Jarrett. Negroes in the religious world, when Jefferson was young, were Abraham Marshall, of Georgia, who boasted of having completed a tour of 3,000 miles through eleven states, preaching and baptizing; Andrew Bryan, of Savannah; a Brother Amos; Richard Allen, whose autobiography was published in 1793; Brother Jeffrey Gaulding and Brother George Liele. The latter toiled among the polygot population of Jamaica, to which province he was taken when sold as an indentured servant, and there he worked out his freedom. But why these details? Because these letters in the *Annual Register*, and I have only touched on a few, tend to confirm the conjecture, at least I think, that there was little consciousness of the color line among the poorer colonial folk and their black brethren who shrove them. Did such men make an impress upon that faction upon whose sympathies Patrick Henry played when the up-state turned against the tide-water region?

From this shadowy group who make up the past history of the Negro, one figure emerges with some identity—Brother Joseph Willis who, as the story has been written me by his grandson, Reverend J. H. Strothers, pastor of a Baptist congregation in Louisiana, was born in Bladen County, North Carolina, and served with a comrade, Ezekiel O'Quin, as a Marion man. By 1798 Brother Willis³ was a licensed preacher in Mississippi and had won the affection of the Curtis family, who are known of a certainty to have been the pioneers of the Baptist faith in that section. By 1804 the preacher was in Louisiana and from that time until 1854 he worked incessantly in the bayou regions—through Vermilion, Plaquemine, Brule, Bayou Chicot, St. Laundry, Bayou Boeuff. Through the Evangeline country of the Attakapas he plied his bateau so that the sons of the plantation owners, into whose laps were rolling now many a sou, might be regenerated after their numerous flights to Paris. Even the timber lands within thirty miles of Alexandria heard his voice.

In 1837 he organized the Louisiana Baptist Association with its full quota of white divines,⁴ and from then until his death, six years before the Civil War, he was one of its faithful members and a constant attendant at its sessions. Where is the diary that Joseph Willis kept?

The only thread that may lead to the recovery of that manuscript is a clue to be found in a foot-note of Mr. Paxton's *History of the Louisiana Baptists*, published in 1881, in which he says: "It appears that Mr. Willis kept faithful notes of the events transpiring around him. These were arranged by Elder W. P. Ford, and form the substance of a small manuscript volume which, by the kindness of Mr. Ford, I was permitted to copy in 1858. To this volume and a file of the minutes of the Louisiana Association, furnished by Mr. Ford, I am indebted for most of the facts about this region."⁵ Were the details known, and the manuscript found, the career of Mr. Willis would undoubtedly be one of the leading threads in unravelling the psychology of the story of Protestantism in Louisiana from its inception by New Eng-

landers in the early twenties until it became the warp and woof of the slave system.

This matrimony to the state political had taken place in New Orleans, where events were shaping the rôle that Dr. Palmer should play when he delivered his Thanksgiving Day sermon from the pulpit of the Second Presbyterian Church, in whose front pews sat the chamber of commerce, and that of Bishop Leonidas Polk when he should gird his warrior's sword to fight the fight that slavery might live. But while these two denominations, with their Methodist brethren, had become the handmaid of the state, the Baptists, apparently, had remained true to their teachings of Revolutionary days, still received the call to preach, conducted their shouting services, and made no dent in the religious world of New Orleans. The nucleus of its ecclesiastical life was the St. Louis cathedral with its solemnity, its wonder working shrine to St. Rita, with its slabs underfoot that marked the resting place of Creoles whose families helped to make the city famous. It created an atmosphere that encourages all the old traditions and formalism in worship. But up-state, a Negro, Joseph Willis, was at different times presiding elder, moderator, and convention speaker of the Louisiana Baptist Association. What part, one wonders, did these people play in the reconstruction of Louisiana?

In spite of the extensive colonization of the Jesuits along the Mississippi and other arteries of trade, the Bible was not well-known in the wilderness until Reverend Samuel Mills, with the assistance of a co-worker, one Daniel Smith, came into the valley in 1815, bringing the testaments that were the gift of the New England Tract Society. His tale of poverty, of gross ignorance, and semi-barbarism prevalent among the alligators of the river is pitiful. His three journals are: *Report of a Missionary Tour, Correct View of that part of the United States that lies west of the Alleghany Mountains*, and *The Report to the Society for propagating the Gospel among the Indians and others in North America*. His *Report of a Missionary Tour*⁶ is valuable for three reasons: (1) His route is so carefully outlined that one can trace the growing settlements in the new west by 1815 (in passing this may be said of many diaries, especially that of Lorenzo Dow). (2) It is a vivid story of how Puritan New England brought biblical culture to the frontier. (3) It contains an interesting side-light on the Roman Catholic Church of 1820. The papacy was not doing vigorous evangelical work along the Mississippi River as the letters of itinerant ministers again and again testify, even granting that their account is warped; nor was it even so much as trying to look after its poor in its stronghold, New Orleans, if Reverend Elias Cornelius, an itinerant of the Presbyterian church, is correct, nor was there that animosity so noticeable in later Louisiana history. Was Rome indifferent, so sure of the destruction awaiting the Calvinist that it could afford to sit back complacently with the self-assurance of centuries of survival, or may one hazard the guess that Rome as yet felt no competition in saving souls? Anyhow, the

fact remains that the Bible Society in Massachusetts gave Mr. Mills 400 Bibles to distribute among the Roman Catholics in Louisiana. Furthermore, special translations of the Testament were made in French for those who still clung to the alien tongue. To quote Mr. Mills⁷: "At Prairie du Rocher we had an interesting conversation with Bishop Flaget of the Roman Catholic church respecting the distribution of the sacred volume among his people. He said he heartily approved, and would exert himself to promote the circulation of the French Scriptures among the Catholics of his diocese; with only this reserve that he must first examine the translation, and see that it is one approved by the church." "Such publications," he goes on to say, "are so scarce in this country that attention is secured to it by that powerful principle—the love of novelty. Sectarian jealousies and even political prejudices against New England have promoted the circulation of our tracts."

Of the public men who guided the nation, Andrew Jackson is the only one who had won the hearts of these servants of Christ who trekked the wilderness. He is mentioned in their journals as a being from the clouds. The following is the favorite story. You remember dear old Peter Cartright of itinerant fame, whose name was a household word from the Ohio to the Mississippi, and whose picture, with its bushy crop of hair, still adorns the walls of many a cottage in the Illinois country away from the beaten path. At the height of his fame, the preacher went to Boston, but to his chagrin could not touch his audience until, removing his collar and tie and rolling up his sleeves, he preached à la the etiquette of the frontier camp meeting. While Mr. Cartright was conducting a conference in Nashville in October, 1818, apparently preaching thus, General Jackson strolled into the crowded tabernacle, whereupon a preacher, pulling his coat-tail, whispered: "Brother Cartright, you must be careful how you preach tonight; General Jackson has come in," and in a stage whisper Brother Cartright replied: "Who is General Jackson? If he don't get his soul converted, God will damn him as quick as he would a Guinea Negro." Next day the two met, and Old Hickory's response was carried from circuit to circuit, if we may judge from the times one comes across it: "I told Mr. Mac. that if I had a few thousand such independent, fearless officers as you were, and a well-drilled army I could take old England."⁸

Of all the secondary source books in American history none contains extracts from the diary of Reverend Timothy Flint,⁹ yet no primary source contains such wealth of sociological material. In October, 1815, he started from Philadelphia, journeyed through the Moravian settlements of Pennsylvania to Pittsburgh, thence along the Ohio, with all its travesties, to the Mississippi, and down it passed Vicksburg and New Orleans to the Indian country of Alexandria. A New Englander of the highest type of Puritan idealism, a writer of much ability, and the only religious poet of New England to be found in Louisiana, Timothy Flint described his journey

minutely with eyes that discerned and heart that understood. Where else can one find such descriptions? For instance, he describes the life on the trade boats, of how they were lashed and floated together. "I was once," he says, "on board a fleet of eight, that were in this way moving on together. It was a considerable walk to travel over the roofs of this floating town. On board of one boat they were killing swine. In another they had apples, cider, nuts and dried fruits. One of the boats was a retail or dram shop. It seems that the object in lashing so many boats together had been to barter, and obtain supplies." Then he tells how axes, scythes, and other tools were made on some boats while others had dry goods shops aboard, with clerks that rivalled those of city establishments for jauntiness. In Cincinnati you may walk with him along the river bank, where, in 1803, the Tinkers are lined up to sell their venison, domestic and wild fowl, past the fish markets to the quarters, where wild animals taken in the wilderness are for sale, to the booths where old ladies, with roots, herbs, nuts, mittens, stockings and "Yankee notions," flaunt their wares, for in 1803 Cincinnati was the only town between Steubenville and Natchez, a distance of 1,500 miles. Then, boarding your flatboat you may continue down the Ohio, that Mona Lisa of rivers, when suddenly your schooner hits a snag, and on an overhanging bough you see the "Narrow house" carved on a tree. That crude monument means "that an exhausted boatman there yielded his breath and was buried." Quickly your boatman rushes for *The Navigator*, the nautical Bible of the river. To quote Timothy Flint again: "Sometimes you are obliged to make your way among the trunks of trees, and the water boiling round your boat like that of a mile race. I do not remember to have traversed this river in any considerable trip, without having heard of some fatal disaster to a boat, or having seen a dead body of some boatman recognized by the flannel shirt which they generally wear. The multitudes of carcasses lying at the points, or thrown up high and dry on the wreck heaps—demonstrate how many boats are lost on this wild river." You may stop at Herculaneum on the Mississippi, where the shots were made for the War of 1812 by letting the lead in a state of fusion drop into the water 300 feet below.

Then there is Mr. Milburn's *Ten Years of Preacher Life* with its colorful descriptions of plantation days, the Reminiscences of Father¹⁰ Clark with its sketch of school teaching along the Kentucky frontier; the careers of Lorenzo Dow,¹¹ Peter Cartwright,¹² W. C. Black, Bishop Chase,¹³ who planted the banner of the Episcopal church in the south, Sylvester Larned,¹⁴ that Christ-like soul that died fighting one of the plagues that was always hovering over Louisiana, Elias Cornelius,¹⁵ who has held my students spell-bound with his pictures of Indian life and conjectures about the mounds, George Peck,¹⁶ Jesse Peck,¹⁷ and a host of others—modest looking volumes upon which the dust lies thick in many a second-hand bookshop of your town.

NOTES

* Read before the teachers' section of the Mississippi Valley Historical Association at its meeting in Springfield, Illinois, on May 7, 1926.

¹ The life of the itinerant preacher conveys to the student as vivid a picture of frontier conditions as a novel of similar theme would, and the element of truth gives added weight. Take Peter Cartwright's description of a day's experiences. "People, unacquainted with frontier life, and especially frontier life fifty or sixty years ago, can form but a very imperfect idea of the sufferings and hardships the early settlers of these Western States underwent at that day, when Methodist preachers went from fort to fort, from camp to camp, from tent to tent, from cabin to cabin, with or without road or path. We walked in dirt floors for carpets, sat on stools or benches for chairs, ate on puncheon tables, had forked sticks and pocket or butcher knives for knives and forks, slept on bear, deer or buffalo skins before the fire, or sometimes on the ground in the open air for downy beds, had our saddles or saddlebags for pillows, instead of pillows of feathers, and one new suit of clothes of homespun was ample clothing for one year for an early Methodist preacher in the West. We crossed creeks and large rivers without bridges or ferry-boats, often swam them on horse-back, or crossed on trees that had fallen over the streams, drove our horses over, and often waded out waist-deep; and if by chance we got a dug-out, or canoe, to cross in ourselves, and swim our horses by, it was quite a treat." *Autobiography of Peter Cartwright, the Backwoods Preacher*. P. 485.

² *The Baptist Annual Register*. 1790, 1791, 1792, 1793. Edited by John Rippon, D.D.

³ Paxton, W. E. *History of the Baptists of Louisiana*. 1881. Pp. 139 ff.

⁴ Hicks, W. *History of the Baptists of Louisiana*. Pp. 31 ff. Hicks says the Louisiana Baptist Association was organized in 1837 by Willis and was formed of churches he had previously organized. For an entirely different interpretation of Willis, consult Carter Woodson's *The Negro in Our History*, pp. 77 ff. The writer was permitted to use the church records and convention programs in the archives of the Baptist Institute in New Orleans.

⁵ Paxton, W. E. *History of the Louisiana Baptists*, P. 149.

⁶ Published at Andover in 1815. The writer was permitted by the Thompson Estate to use the copy of the late Mr. J. Thompson, of New Orleans. This tract and the Hempstead Letters in manuscript form in the library of the Missouri Historical Library at St. Louis furnished the material for this part of the discussion. Mr. Hempstead, who had charge of much of the distribution of the Bibles from St. Louis, corresponded extensively with Samuel Mills. There are many letters written by the latter in the collection and as source material for church history they are invaluable. Writing from Marietta, Ohio, on September 14, 1814, Mills says: "I soon expect a box of 500 French Testaments will be sent on to your care for the gratuitous distribution. From the managers of the Philadelphia Bible Society I hope the French Catholics will readily receive them. We think that there is reason to fear that some of the Catholics in New Orleans will exert an influence unfavourable to the distribution but we hope not, if this should be the case at the latter place we hope this influence will not be felt in your vicinity."

⁷ *Report of a Missionary Tour*. P. 11.

⁸ Strickland, W. P. *Autobiography of Peter Cartwright*, 1856. Pp. 192 ff.

⁹ Flint, T. *Reflections of the Last Ten Years*. 1826.

¹⁰ *Father Clark, or the Pioneer Preacher by an Old Pioneer*. 1855.

¹¹ Dow, Peggy. *The Dealings of God, Man, and the Devil; as exemplified in the Life, Expeditions and Travels of Lorenzo Dow*. Together with his polemics and Miscellaneous Writings Complete. 1850.

¹² *Autobiography of Peter Cartwright, the Backwoods Preacher*. Edited by W. P. Strickland. 1856.

¹³ *Bishop Chase's Reminiscences*; an autobiography. Second Edition. 2 vols. 1848.

¹⁴ Gurley, R. R. *Life and Eloquence of the Reverend S. Larned*. 1844.

¹⁵ Edwards, B. B. *Memoir of Dr. Cornelius*. 1842.

¹⁶ *Life and Times of Reverend George Peck, D.D.* Written by himself. 1874.

¹⁷ The notes of Jesse Peck are lost, but into his life of Father Clark he has put many touches of his own career. For instance, he has left one of the few descriptions, and the most detailed one, of the garb of the itinerant. "His dress was the ordinary garb of the country, coarse cotton and wool mixed, and a greyish or light blue color. The outside garment was a hunting-shirt; an article then

worn by all classes on the frontier. This was a loose open frock that reached half way down the thighs, with large sleeves, and the body open in the front, unless fastened by a girdle or belt around the breast; the large cape fastened to the collar, and the edges fringed with strips of reddish cloth. The materials for his garments were cotton with a mixture of wool, and spun and wove in the families where he had lived. On his head was a low-crowned felt hat, and his feet were shod with a kind of moccasins called shoe-packs. These were made of thick leather, tanned by the farmers with oak bark in a trough, and dressed with the oil or fat of the raccoon or opossum. The soles were fastened to the upper leather by a leathern thong, called by backwoodsmen 'a whang.'" P. 105.

Four Principles in the Teaching of History

BY LAWRENCE LOUTHIAN, STATE DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION, COLUMBUS, OHIO

The progressive history teacher of today gives much emphasis to such principles as these: interpretation, objectives, pupil activity, and the development of capabilities.

I

Interpretation is necessary in any course in history. A fact may and may not be important. There can be no question that many facts are essential to an understanding of life, but it may be of little importance whether or not certain facts are known. One of the shocks of my professional life was to be told by an able historian that he might not know every fact in the text the class was using; there could be no question that he knew many times what could be found in the text. Facts in themselves can never equal in value a broad and comprehensive conception of life; and yet many would-be history teachers are teaching facts rather than history.

It is natural for a pupil before he reaches junior high school age to have developed to some extent the capability of explaining. In the lower grades his memory asserted itself and his recitations, consequently, were characterized by the naming of objects and the recounting of facts. In the intermediate grades he described objects and thus showed that he was developing the capability of visualizing objects. In the later intermediate and upper grades he should do these things and much more: he should interpret the facts he relates.

In history nothing just happens. There are factors back of every event or fact. In the abolition of slavery, during the Civil War, for instance, there was a moral factor which went back nearly two centuries to such good folk as the Quakers, an economic factor which went back equally far to farmers and merchants in the North who could not use slaves profitably, and a geographic factor which involved such things as soils, climate, crops, and accessibility to the slave markets of the world. A good student should form a habit of thinking of factors in connection with an event or fact.

Whenever there is an event, it has a certain amount of significance. The battle of Saratoga is a very interesting source of information; about it can be gathered many facts. It was part of a great movement in human history; and the meaning of this event

must accompany any facts which may be desirable. It turned the tide in the Revolutionary War. It brought to our doors the aid of the French, because it convinced them that there was an opportunity of causing Great Britain to lose her richest colonies.

It is obvious, then, that there can be cause to effect reasoning in history instruction. Every factor is a cause; the event is a result, though the event in turn may be a factor with reference to another event. The significance of an event may also be an important cause. This process of reasoning from cause to effect should have two purposes. One is to minimize the amount of memory work in history. With memory alone no one could become a real student of history. The capability of understanding, in other words, of interpreting for one's self and for others, is vastly bigger than memorization. There is no real history without understanding. Cause to effect reasoning will go far toward a realization of this aim. It is also an important means of teaching pupils the development of present-day life out of the experiences of the past. Every real student of history should feel that he is having a part vicariously in the making of today.

Interpretation takes the place of memorization whenever the student explains, recognizes factors, tells the significance of events, reasons from cause to effect, and traces, perhaps through an open textbook exercise, the development of present-day institutions and life. The student is then reliving human history rather than making of himself an embryonic walking encyclopedia.

II

Objectives are a second important principle in the make-up of the modern teacher. Our objectives determine our point of view, to a large extent our achievement, and in a vital sense our technique. There can be no real instruction without knowledge on the part of the instructor of the subject-matter; and this subject-matter must be so organized that there are a few suitable objectives. Two of the most important in any history course are these: the ability to understand how people live and the ability to understand a few forces.

There are practically no teachers who still stress the facts connected with battles. There are few who would contend that wars should take precedence over

the achievements of great peoples in time of peace. There are many teachers, however, who do not rise above a mechanical and routine discussion of facts, and a process of textbook and memory activity to the plane of reliving the social experiences of the past. To understand how people live is one of the greatest treasures of history.

The group should be kept uppermost in the student's mind. There is yet too much of hero worship. Not that big men are unimportant in any course. The important fact is, that there is never a great man without a great group of people. This group is a force in the sense that it has a program it wishes to put into effect. When we study Thomas Jefferson, therefore, we should also study the small farmers and shopkeepers of his day; when we study Andrew Jackson we should study this same group only in a different generation and on a new frontier.

It is partly because of age-old forces that current history is so important. No history teacher should neglect the opportunity of helping the pupil to find the age-old forces in his daily life. It will then be easier for him to see that the past is essential in the making of today. There are students who think that facts and men are important because they are ancient or mediaeval, because they are old and far away in the past, whereas this consideration adds nothing to their value. A big man in early times is worthy of attention because he identified himself with a group that had a program and he achieved something in its behalf. His present-day counterpart should be sought and he in turn should be related to a force in current life. Obviously there will be some imperfections in such exercises, but the process and the point of view are more important than any matter of detail. Washington should then be related to Coolidge, Napoleon to Foch, and Caesar to Mussolini.

Forces should be studied also in the community life of the child. His community life should have a part in his thinking. Relationships should be made with the forces which can be found in his county or state. It is not necessary to go a thousand miles from home to find poor people and rich people, farmers and merchants, plain folk and the highly sophisticated. There may be groups in the child's county which have a part in the moulding of civilization.

The good history student should put much emphasis, then, upon the way people live and upon the forces which make present-day life.

III

A third vital consideration is pupil activity. There is not real high school or elementary grade instruction without pupil activity. It is necessary to achievement. The chief objective of supervision is the improvement of classroom procedure. The chief objective of classroom procedure is pupil activity. Without pupil activity, the child can share in no interpretation and in none of the major objectives of the subject. He cannot develop those capabilities which

are needed in any understanding of life. Without pupil activity, the best assurance of avoiding memorization is gone. If in any subject there should be much of pupil activity that subject is history. The pupil should talk long enough in answer to a question to explain, to give more than one fact, to make a point, to reason from cause to effect, and to make relationships. He should be the one to locate places and to trace movements on the map, not the teacher. He should also do much of the writing on the blackboard. When the teacher is justified in talking for a time, he should make an occasional note. Not least important in his activity, the pupil should have a part in the making of the assignment if he does nothing more than to write a few notes as a result of the instructors' activity.

The chief merit of professionalized subject-matter is the fact that it includes student activity; and then the student, when he goes out to teach, will probably expect his pupils to have a part in class discussions. Professionalized subject-matter courses in college are receiving increasing attention. These courses are an aid to proper habits of thinking in history and consequently are helpful to the student who will not be an instructor, because he must teach himself. Teaching how to study is especially valuable regardless of the future of the child. Teaching how to use a map or a book or a magazine is required as much in the life of the educated lawyer as in the life of the teacher. Every successful man without respect to occupation is a teacher; pupil activity in professionalized subject-matter courses in college and in all high school and elementary grade activities is the best assurance of success in life.

IV

The fourth and most important principle is the development of capabilities. The child is a bundle of capabilities. These may or may not be discovered; and if discovered they may or may not be developed. Pupil activity under scientific direction of the one who should be the best executive in the world, the teacher, is the best way to develop these capabilities. Without certain capabilities there is no proper conception of history. Two are especially necessary. One is the capability of visualizing experiences and the other is the capability of reading with the minimum of effort and the maximum of efficiency. No student needs visual imagery more and no student needs to be a good reader more than the history student. There are those who hate history because their visual imagery is weak or because they must make an effort to read. Almost all students who possess these two capabilities are efficient in this subject.

The teacher who can point to interpretation, objectives, pupil activity, and the development of definite capabilities as a part of her instruction may rest assured of her success in large measure and also of that richest reward which comes with true success—the gratitude in mature years of her students.

Teaching Citizenship Through Practice

BY HOWARD C. HILL, UNIVERSITY HIGH SCHOOL, UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO

SCOPE OF CIVIC EDUCATION

True civic education includes within its scope both intelligence and behavior. While the two are closely related, civic intelligence, in so far as the school is concerned, is inculcated in the main by the use of textbooks, supplementary reading materials, personal investigations, field trips, and class discussions. To secure civic behavior, on the other hand, generally necessitates the provision of social situations within the school, by and through which pupils may have opportunities to develop the skills and habits that are characteristic of good citizenship.

The social situations that have been provided during recent years in many progressive schools to meet the need for training in conduct may be classified under three heads: first, various kinds of socialized procedure in the management of classroom activities, ranging from elaborate types of the socialized recitation to simple forms of pupil co-operation; second, varied provisions for extra-curricular clubs, societies, organizations, and enterprises; third, plans possessing different degrees of complexity for student participation in school government. The present article will be confined to the last two types of provisions.

STUDENT CLUBS AND ORGANIZATIONS

Extra-curricular clubs and organizations are of the widest variety. The Holmes Junior High School of Philadelphia numbers among its pupil organizations a Bird Club, Shakespeare Club, Art Collectors' Club, Costume Club, Poetry Club, Dramatic Club, Travel Club, Advertising Club, Scribblers' Club, Etiquette Club, Public Speaking Club, Current Events Club, English Club, French Club, Camp Cookery Club, Exploratory Club, Triangle Club, Botany Club, Wild Flower Club, Stamp Club, Spanish Club, Debating Club, Civic Club, Art Needle Club, as well as numerous athletic organizations. The Washington Junior High School of Rochester, New York, contains several nature-study and science clubs, a number of hiking clubs, three or four glee clubs and choral clubs, several camera clubs, a Mandolin Club, Story Telling Club, Short Story Club, Camp Fire Girls' Auxiliary Club, Boy Scout Patrol Leaders' Training Club, Watch-your-speech Club, Chemistry Club, General Science Club, Poultry Club, Drama Club, Cartoon Club, Wireless Club, Kite Club, First-aid Club, Scrap-book Club, Aero Club, and various athletic and handicraft clubs. The interests and activities of the various clubs are indicated in general by their names.

Ordinarily, membership in the clubs is voluntary, although in some schools every pupil is required to belong to some organization. In the Holmes Junior High School pupils may belong to three clubs if their regular school work is satisfactory. Since the

number of members is limited, freedom in the choice of clubs is necessarily restricted. In the Holmes Junior High School the incoming seventh-grade pupils are not admitted to club membership during their first semester in the school. Instead, they meet in the auditorium on Mondays for story-telling, or Tuesdays for music appreciation, and on Thursdays for travel; in addition, from time to time, they have talks from the older pupils in which the activities of the various clubs are described. After the completion of the work of the first semester pupils are permitted to indicate their first, second, and third choices of the clubs they wish to join, preference being given to the older pupils.

Members of the faculty serve as club advisers, but each organization as a rule selects its own officers, arranges its own program, and conducts its own meetings. The clubs that seem to be most successful are those that originate with the pupils in response to a social need, rather than those that are established through the suggestions or the leadership of the teachers. One of the most important elements entering into the success of school organization is indeed the right mixture of pupil-initiative and teacher-guidance.

To guard against the dangers incident to pupil initiative the Holmes Junior High School stipulates that, before a new club may be formed, its advocates must show (1) that it will meet the personal needs of a number of the pupils; (2) that it will contribute substantially to the activities already in the school; (3) that it will promote training for citizenship; (4) that it will serve community needs; and (5) that it will not stir up religious or political hostility among the parents.

MEETING TIME OF STUDENT ORGANIZATIONS

The success of extra-curricular organizations is vitally affected by the provision made for them in the daily program of the school. When they are required to hold their meetings after school, or when they must compete with athletic contests, the number of pupils who attend regularly is usually small.

Recognizing the foregoing fact and believing in the educative value of the clubs, the faculty of the Holmes Junior High School provides a meeting time for school organizations by adding a seventh period to the school day. During the seventh period on Mondays, Tuesdays, and Thursdays the clubs have their meetings; on Fridays each teacher holds personal conferences with the pupils of her own home room. On the first three Wednesdays in the month the seventh period is devoted to faculty meetings. On the fourth Wednesday the period is set aside for individual assistance to pupils who for any reason are having trouble with their school work; all other

pupils are dismissed at the end of the sixth period.²

Another solution of the problem of providing a suitable meeting time for the clubs is the shifting schedule. At the University of Chicago High School the clubs are arranged in two groups, each group meeting on alternate Wednesdays. On the days mentioned the classes that ordinarily assemble at half-past two in the afternoon meet in the morning at eight o'clock, thereby vacating the final period in the day for the use of the clubs.

The civic value of extra-curricular organizations depends in large part on the nature of their activities. The literary, musical, and scientific clubs play a useful part in supplementing classroom instruction; oftentimes they contribute notably to the development of genuine intellectual tastes. Handicraft and athletic clubs promote good health and develop motor skills. Clubs of a vocational character utilize knowledge and dexterity gained in regular class-work and stimulate interest and application in the performance of school tasks. Civic societies and public-speaking clubs contribute directly to the understanding of present-day problems and at the same time motivate the work in the social studies. When properly conducted, clubs tend to contribute to training in citizenship by affording opportunities for the development of leadership and by providing social situations necessitating co-operative efforts for the success of student undertakings.

PUPIL PARTICIPATION IN HOME ROOM MANAGEMENT

Organization of the home room after the manner of the New England town meeting is a common feature of pupil participation in the administration and government of the school.³ The plan in operation in the Washington Junior High School, of Rochester, New York, will serve as an example.

The Washington Junior High School is made up of more than fifty home-room units, each containing about thirty-five pupils. The home room is in charge of the pupils who elect their own officers for semester terms under the supervision of the home-room teacher.

"Each room has five officers. The room president is class leader, the presiding officer at all class meetings, the teacher's proxy during her absence, and the agent for library campaigns and other school enterprises. The vice-president is business manager of all home-room activities and as the 'safety first' representative inspects and remedies menaces to sanitation and health. The secretary-treasurer is in charge of school reports and of all communications with the office, is custodian of class funds, and is in charge of savings accounts and thrift stamps. The usher is a reception committee of one to receive visitors, and to escort them through the building. He also leads his group in passing through the corridors, being required on his own ingenuity to extricate them from corridor congestion. The deputy is in charge of group discipline, dismissing the class and maintaining the order of his group in the corridors."⁴

Upon such a basis, marked by variations, usually rests the organization of the student body for participation in the government of the school.

Governmental machinery is generally of two types: first, elaborate organizations modeled on the pattern of a city, a state, or a republic; second, simple organizations in the form of representative councils.

SCHOOL CITY FORM OF ORGANIZATION

The Junior High School of the State Normal School, Oshkosh, Wisconsin, is an example of the city form of organization. In this school each of the six grades from VIIB to IXA, inclusive, constitutes a ward. Each ward participates in the election of a mayor, city treasurer, city clerk, chief of police, police board, policemen, municipal judge, and clerk of the court; the pupils in each ward, in addition, elect two representatives to serve on the city commission. Elections are conducted as nearly as possible in accordance with the regulations that govern city elections in Oshkosh.

The mayor is the chief executive in the school city and with the commissioners comprises the legislative body. Members of the faculty serve as a supreme court of advice. Special committees of pupils are appointed to supervise such matters as library privileges, class transfers, and traffic regulations.⁵

A more elaborate form of the school city is represented in the Holmes Junior High School of Philadelphia, a school containing more than seventeen hundred boys and girls. In each home room the pupils elect representatives to the Administrative Council and to the four departments of the city government, namely, Public Works, Public Safety, Sanitation, and Social Welfare. The departments are subdivided into bureaus, each having definite responsibilities in the school.

The character of pupil participation may be seen from a survey of the activities of the various departments and bureaus. The Department of Public Works is responsible for the care of all property, whether belonging to the school, the neighborhood, or the individual pupils. The Department of Public Safety oversees traffic, both within and without the building, supervises fire drills, and is concerned with order and discipline. The Department of Sanitation has supervision over the cleanliness of the classrooms, corridors, assembly hall, basement, and schoolyard. The Department of Social Welfare is in charge of school decorations and publicity enterprises, keeps in touch with absentee pupils, looks after cases of tardiness, provides ushers at parents' meetings, and assists the principal and teachers when emergencies arise. The Administrative Council is primarily a co-ordinating agency that holds monthly meetings to hear reports of the various departmental bureaus and to offer suggestions for their work.⁶

STUDENT COUNCIL FORM OF ORGANIZATION

The second and simpler form of machinery for pupil participation in the management of school affairs is the Student Council. This body is composed ordinarily of class officers and of representatives chosen by the various classes and student organizations. The council generally possesses both legislative and executive powers. Occasionally it also exercises judicial authority.⁷

Under the council form of organization there are usually no such officers as mayor, governor, chief of police, marshal, tribune, clerk, or judge; neither are there such departments and bureaus as have been described above. Instead, a president, a secretary, and committees composed of members of the council generally comprise the extent of the governmental machinery. The president is usually chosen by the entire student body; the secretary and committees are ordinarily appointed by the council.

As a rule, the council operates informally, frequently without a written constitution. It concerns itself in general with whatever affects the welfare of the school, the scope of its functions being limited oftentimes only by its capacity to exercise its powers wisely.⁸ With rare exceptions it operates under the supervision of the faculty.

Opinions differ concerning the merits of the two forms of student participation in school government. The school city and the school republic seem to make a stronger appeal to younger pupils than to older boys and girls. Whichever form is adopted should be a natural outgrowth of the conditions in the school.

In both forms of government it is essential, if the plan is to succeed, that student officers be brought to realize that they are *representatives* of the student body, chosen to serve the interests of the school, delegated with a trust. It is equally important that pupils be taught to weigh the qualifications of candidates in choosing officers and representatives and that they recognize their officers and representatives as leaders and as entitled to support and assistance in all efforts to promote the welfare of the school. When such matters are understood by boys and girls, it will be seen that the judgment and care they exercise in elections and the extent to which they co-operate with student officials in the discharge of duties will compare favorably with the action of adults in similar situations.

In the schools in which student participation has not succeeded—and the number of such schools is not small—the failures have usually been due to one or more of the following causes: (1) Substitution of pupil repression for teacher repression; (2) lack of pupil demand for a voice in the management of school activities; (3) absence of preparatory work before the introduction of the plan; (4) over-confidence in a particular form of organization; (5) antagonism, indifference, and misunderstanding on the part of teachers; (6) evaluating the product or measuring the results of student participation by a false standard, namely, by the effect of the plan upon discipline (an incidental end) instead of by the effect upon citizenship (the true objective).

Student participation in school government is sound in theory and, where wisely inaugurated and guided, has proved effective in practice. That we learn to do by doing, is a principle that has long had universal acceptance. On such justification the shop has its place in the teaching of manual arts, the laboratory its place in the teaching of science. For like

reasons student participation in the management of school activities occupies an important part in all effective plans for training in citizenship.

¹ Reprinted from *The Teachers Journal and Abstract*, I (1926), pp. 111-115.

² The details concerning the Holmes Junior High School have been drawn from R. L. Lyman's "The Guidance Program of the Holmes Junior High School," *School Review*, Vol. 32, pp. 93-104.

³ For a description and evaluation of socialized procedure in the teaching of civics, see H. C. Hill, "Pupil Management of Class Activities," *THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK*, Vol. 13, pp. 256-259.

⁴ R. L. Lyman, "Washington Junior High School, Rochester, N. Y.," *School Review*, Vol. 28, p. 199.

⁵ Laura M. Johnston, "Pupil Participation in Administering the Junior High School," *Elementary School Journal*, Vol. 22, p. 615; see also May Van Kirk, "The School-City—A Civics Project," *THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK*, Vol. 15, pp. 77-79; Wilson L. Gill, *New Citizenship*, American Patriotic League, Philadelphia, 1913.

⁶ R. L. Lyman, "The Guidance Program of the Holmes Junior High School," *School Review*, Vol. 32, pp. 92-104.

⁷ Helpful suggestions on the activities of student councils are given in J. J. Vineyard, "The Organization and Administration of a Student Council," *Kansas Teacher*, Vol. 21, p. 9f.

⁸ For admirable examples of activities of student councils, see E. M. Parmenter's "Student Government, a Project Method," *School Review*, Vol. 33, pp. 115-125; Gertrude Jones' "Three Principles Underlying the Administration of Extra-Curricular Activities," *loc. cit.*, Vol. 33, pp. 510-522, and R. L. Lyman's "The Junior High Schools of Atlanta, Ga.," *loc. cit.*, Vol. 33, p. 591f.

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The Status of the Historical and Social Sciences in Kansas High Schools*

BY JAMES C. MALIN, PH.D., ASSISTANT PROFESSOR OF HISTORY AT THE UNIVERSITY OF KANSAS

INTRODUCTION

Prior to 1925 the Kansas high school curricular adjustments were based upon the principle of specific requirements of a limited number of subjects, leaving the remaining subjects to election by the student. Educational tradition specified English, mathematics, ancient or modern language, science and national history. These requirements were reduced from time to time, either in amounts or in the elimination of one after another of the subjects in the group until in the school year beginning with the fall of 1925 a new system was inaugurated.

One of the factors contributing to the changes in requirements is the recent educational theory which minimizes or rejects altogether the traditional assumption that the most effective mental discipline is to be derived from a rigid training in the classical languages and mathematics. Another important factor is the demand that education must have a practical value that can be measured in dollars and cents. It is the contest between culture and economics. A third factor is the exaggerated post-war emphasis on the informational aspect of education as respects contemporary social and economic organization. Apply these factors as tests to Greek and Latin, to algebra and geometry, to ancient and American colonial history, or even European history, to the cultural and scientific languages—German and French—and they are either dropped altogether or are relegated to the elective groups. There can be no question that the old curriculum over-stressed abstract culture as applied to mass production in the public school system, but it is equally true that the present tendencies over-stress practicality. Are democracy and culture wholly incompatible? Or is the genius of democracy limited solely to the attainment of physical comfort?

The new curricular requirements inaugurated in 1925 classify all high school subjects into six groups: English, mathematics, foreign languages, science, social science, and vocational and fine arts. "The accredited high school must offer at least five of these groups and no student should be permitted to graduate until he has successfully completed fifteen units of work selected according to the following plan": 1. Two majors of three units each, one of which must be English. 2. Two minors of two units each, one of which must be social science, unless social science is chosen as a major. 3. One-half unit of constitution of the United States. This requirement was fixed

by the 1924 legislature as a result of patriotic propaganda. The above program is of vast importance to the future of education both in the high schools and in the colleges, because it must be noted under the above requirements that unless the individual school acts to the contrary a student may be graduated without any two of the six groups of studies, except English and social science. He may omit mathematics and language, mathematics and science, or language and science. To students entering college this may be disastrous. High school mathematics is absolutely necessary to college mathematics and to scientific work. Language is most desirable and in many cases necessary to advanced college work. The state law requires the University to accept the graduates of accredited high schools whatever they may offer. The dilemma in which the student will frequently find himself is that he can enter college, but that he cannot take the courses he may wish, because he does not have the prerequisites. He will either have to take such courses as have no prerequisites or else make up the high school courses. The colleges in Kansas and elsewhere frame their courses on the assumption that students entering college are prepared to do college work. The colleges are at present doing too much that properly belongs to preparatory schools.

In considering the problem of curricular adjustment the distribution of population and of high schools has an important bearing. According to the census of March, 1926, the rural population of Kansas, which is computed to include all towns of less than 1,000 as rural, was 54 per cent. of the total. Towns of from 1,000 to 10,000 population represent 18.5 per cent. of the total. The eighteen cities of over 10,000 population include 27.5 per cent. of the total. There are 715 senior high schools in the state, of which approximately 60 per cent. are rural, consolidated, township or union schools. These districts may or may not have a village as a nucleus. The prevailing occupational interest is agricultural. Add to these the small town high schools which in many cases are scarcely distinguishable from the rural or consolidated districts and it is evident that from the standpoint of both population and numbers of schools the small school with its agricultural constituency is a most important factor to be reckoned with. The limitations of teaching force, equipment, libraries, etc., preclude an elaborate combination of courses. It would be a safe generalization that the average school attempts too great a variety in its curriculum. A smaller number of courses, well articulated, would produce much better results both from the standpoint of effective teaching as well as from the standpoint of student preparation. The problem, then, which confronts the high school is what combination of courses

*This paper was read at the meeting of the History Round Table of the Kansas State Teachers Association at Topeka, November 5, 1926.

will be most effective in constructing majors and minors in each of the groups.

From the standpoint of the social science teacher at least, the problem of the English, mathematics and foreign language groups seems comparatively simple. The content of those fields is more or less stable. They have not undergone a revolutionary expansion of content during the last quarter century comparable to the sciences, whether social, biological, or physical. When the Committee of Seven made its report the vocational work and fine arts did not make any great demands upon the student's time, and practically no attention was given to economics, sociology, and commercial law. It was possible then to demand the two-year course in European history and one year in American history as a three-year program, civics being a part of American history. English history could be used as a fourth year in the history program. European history extended little beyond the Congress of Vienna, and American history ended with the Civil War and Reconstruction. At present a treatment of the history of Europe since the Congress of Vienna, which is considered adequate, adds about 50 per cent. to the content of the course, and the history of the United States since the Civil War nearly doubles the content of American history. The old civics course was crowded out of the year of American history altogether and has grown until it often occupies two years. Economics, sociology, and commercial law each demand a half year in addition. How can three or four years of history and three or four years of social science be crowded into a two-year minor or a three-year major?

THE SITUATION IN 1911

Two previous studies of the status of history in the high schools of Kansas have been made. The first in 1912 by H. T. Steeper, then of Abeline High School, and the second in 1921 by Miss Lora Taylor, then a graduate student in the University of Kansas. In each case the purpose and methodology of the study was different and the data are, consequently, in a form which does not permit of satisfactory correlation. There are certain tendencies which are interesting nevertheless.

Steeper tabulated the number of student enrollments in each field of history (not number of students, as one student might be enrolled in two or more subjects at the same time).

Greek and Roman History	7092
Mediaeval and Modern History	3318
American History	3412
Civics	2887
English History	690
Economics	659

The figures show enrollments in Ancient history more than double those of Mediaeval and Modern history. While there must be an allowance made for number of students who do not go beyond the first year, that loss is not sufficient to account for the decline in the second year of history. A large number evidently did not take the second course. American history was slightly stronger than Mediaeval

and Modern Europe. Civics was somewhat less than American history, while economics, the only social science presented, attracted a very small enrollment, smaller even than English history. (H. T. Steeper. Status of History Teaching in the High Schools of Kansas. School Review (March, 1914, 22: 189-191.)

THE SITUATION IN 1921

Miss Taylor based her study on the reports from questionnaires answered by 204 schools or approximately one-third of the high schools. Her tabulations of this phase of her problem are as follows:

First Year:	
Ancient History	50 schools
General History	7 schools
Community Civics	28 schools
Second Year:	
Ancient History	15 schools
Modern History	75 schools
Third Year:	
American History	8 schools
Civics (One Year)	105 schools
Modern History	23 schools
Fourth Year:	
American History	204 schools
Civics	10 schools
Modern Europe	2 schools
Economics	3 schools
Modern Problems	3 schools
Sociology	1 school

The total number of times each subject is offered appears as follows:

Ancient History	65 schools, or 31.8 %
Modern History	100 schools, or 49. %
General History	7 schools, or 3.4 %
American History	204 schools, or 100. %
Community Civics	28 schools, or 13.7 %
Civics	115 schools, or 56.6 %
Economics	3 schools, or 1.9 %
Modern Problems	3 schools, or 1.9 %
Sociology	1 school, or .49%

Modern history appears 50 per cent. more times than Ancient history, and American history is offered in every school. Economics has a small place, and modern problems and sociology appear, the latter in only one school. Community civics stands out as the important new element in the curriculum.

SUBJECTS OFFERED FOR COLLEGE ENTRANCE, 1926

In order to find out something of the tendencies under the above curricular arrangement a study had been made of the subjects offered by high school students for college entrance. As Miss Taylor's study was based upon the year 1921-22, the Freshmen entering high school in that year would graduate in the spring of 1926 and enter college in the fall. From this source, 231 unselected Kansas students have been studied. The subjects offered are as follows:

Early European History	121 students, or 51.7%
Modern European History	126 students, or 53.9%
World History	17 students, or 7.1%
English History	12 students, or 5. %
American History	180 students, or 81.4%
Community Civics or Citizenship (Freshman)	21 students, or 9. %
Civics (One-Year Course)	119 students, or 50. %
Social Civics (Half Year)	37 students, or 16. %
Constitution (Half Year)	72 students, or 31. %

Economics (Half Year, 68; One Year, 4)	72 students, or 31. %
Industrial Civics (One Year, One School)	17 students, or 7.1%
Sociology (Half Year)	31 students, or 13.3%

The amount of work offered in the social science group by the above students is tabulated as follows:

6 years of work offered by 1 student	
5½ years of work offered by 3 students	
5 years of work offered by 3 students	
4½ years of work offered by 18 students, or 7.7%	
4 years of work offered by 38 students, or 16.4%	
3½ years of work offered by 34 students, or 14.7%	
3 years of work offered by 65 students, or 28. %	
2½ years of work offered by 27 students, or 11.7%	
2 years of work offered by 29 students, or 12.5%	
1 or 1½ years offered by 13 students, or 5.6%	

By grouping the results into three divisions a clearer summary is possible: 97 students or 42 per cent. offered more than three years of work, that is more than a major under the new system; 65 students or 28 per cent. offered just three years of work or a major. Adding the two groups it is found that a total of 70 per cent. of the students fulfilled the new major requirement, and all but 13 students or 5.6 per cent. met the two-year minor requirement. It might be worth noting that about half of the above 13 came from one of the eighteen larger city systems.

A study of the combinations of subjects offered by the students does not give very satisfactory results, because of the numerous possibilities and wide variations. The one student offering six years of work included three years of history; Early European, English, and American, and three years of civics, freshman community civics, junior civics, and constitution. It would be difficult to work out a more absurd combination. The students offering five or five and a half years of work made very reasonable combinations, but the same combination was made by only two of the six: Early European, Modern European and American history, with civics, economics and sociology. The same combination with the omission of sociology was made by 39 per cent. of the four-and-a-half-year group. The remaining students in that group were scattered among seven other combinations, the least desirable of which was Early European and American history with civics and community civics, one year each, and a half year of sociology. It would seem impossible to defend such a combination from any point of view. Modern history and economics were omitted and civics duplicated. In the four-year group the combination which prevails among 42 per cent. of the students in the group is Early European, Modern European, and American history with civics. There are sixteen other combinations represented, usually by only one student each. It might be noted that one combination is offered by six students, but as all of this group came from one large city system with a freak course of study, it is not representative. In three of the seventeen combinations Early European history is not followed by Modern, and in eight combinations Early European history is omitted. In one case no European history is included, the combination being

made up of American history, community civics, civics, and economics. In the three-and-a-half-year group eighteen combinations appear and no one combination more than five times or 14 per cent. of the students. Early European history is omitted in eight combinations representing eleven students, and is not followed by Modern European history in five cases where it was offered. The three-year group shows more uniformity, although there are eighteen different combinations: Modern European and American history with civics constitutes 27.7 per cent. of the offerings; Early European and American history with civics 16 per cent.; Modern European and American history with constitution and economics 10.7 per cent.; Early European and Modern European history with civics 7.3 per cent. Seventeen students (26 per cent.) offering five different combinations present Early European history without Modern history.

Students of the two and two-and-a-half-year groups differ little in general characteristics, presenting as a rule a combination based upon European or American history or American history and civics. The two-and-a-half-year students scattered too widely to repay an attempt to summarize, as no combination was offered by more than three students. In the two-year group a combination of American history and civics appeared in 27.4 per cent. of the cases; Early European and American history in 13.7 per cent., and Modern European and American history in 10.3 per cent. If world history is combined with Modern the combination with American would represent 15 per cent. of the group. In the one and the one-and-a-half-year groups American history or American history and civics were offered most frequently.

As one of the primary problems at present is the choice between the two and the one-year courses in European history the data on this point is of interest. Of the 162 students offering the equivalent of a major, 77 students or 47.3 per cent. presented the two-year course, while 38 or 23.4 per cent. presented Early European history without Modern, while 38 students or 23.4 per cent. presented world history or Modern history. Of the 56 students offering the equivalent of a minor only four presented Early European and Modern European history, while 12 presented Early European without Modern history, and 11 presented world or Modern history without Early European. Adding the groups together 81 or 37 per cent. of the whole 231 presented both, 50 or 22 per cent. presented only Early European history, and 49 or 22 per cent. presented world or Modern European history. In other words, only something over one-third of the students who presented European history for entrance presented the two-year course. The size of the school from which the student comes has some relation to the kind of a combination presented. The very small schools and the large schools show an unusually large percentage of badly arranged courses. It would seem that one of the problems to be adjusted in the large schools is to provide a more effective means of obtaining continuity and balanced courses.

COURSES AND TEXTBOOKS ADOPTIONS FOR FIVE YEARS,
BEGINNING 1925

<i>Course</i>	<i>Credit Year</i>	<i>Text</i>
Early European History..	1	Webster, Early European History, Boston: Heath, 1925.
Modern European History	1	Webster, Modern European History. Boston: Heath, 1925.
World History	1	Webster, World History. Boston: Heath, 1925.
American History	1	Forman, Advanced American History. Revised. New York: Century, 1924.
Community Civics	1	Hepner, The Good Citizen. Boston: Houghton-Mifflin.
Constitution of the United States	½	Norton, The Constitution of the United States. Little, Brown.
Social Civics	½	Munro and Ozanne, Social Civics. Macmillan.
Civics	1	Guitteau, Government and Politics in the United States. Kansas Ed. Houghton, Mifflin.
(This course, if taken for a year, may substitute for the Constitution course.)		
Sociology	½	Ross, Civic Sociology, World Book Co.
Economics	½	Carver, Elementary Economics. Ginn. or Riley, Economics for Secondary Schools. Houghton, Mifflin.
Economics	1	Ely-Wicker, Elementary Economics, Revised. Macmillan.

Special attention should be called to the course in world history. It must be differentiated clearly from the old course in general history which prevailed in the nineteenth century. It is usually quite difficult for teachers who have been teaching the two-year course in European history to adjust themselves to the world history, because they try to condense what they have been teaching in two years into one year, which is, after all, just the old course in general history. The world history course is in reality a course in modern history introduced by a brief survey of the ancient and mediaeval periods from the standpoint of presenting in a clear outline the principal contributions which those periods have to make to the modern period. It serves merely as background, and the picture must be drawn on broad lines as the setting for the more concrete and detailed presentation of modern history. Each of the great civilizations can be fixed as to place by the making of maps, and as to time by the construction of parallel charts. The contributions of each civilization can be summarized to present clearly such factors as culture, religion, literature, architecture, the idea of state and government, the great systems of law, etc. Such a survey can be completed with a fair degree of satisfaction in ten or twelve weeks, when modern history proper is introduced by the "Age of the Reformation" which brings in the renaissance, the capitalistic revolution, social reorganization, the national power state, and

the religious reformation, together with the emphasis upon the individual which runs through the fabric of the whole period and which, by placing a new value upon the individual, led to the development of responsible government. A sharp contrast should be made between the mediaeval and the modern periods, otherwise modernism has no particular meaning and the significance of subsequent developments is largely lost.

THE SOCIAL SCIENCE GROUP IN THE COURSE OF
STUDY UNDER THE MAJOR-MINOR SYSTEM. 1926.

In order to determine the present practice a study has been made of the course of study for the school year 1926-27 as it appears in the reports of the high school principals to the state supervisors. As reports had not been filed on 95 schools when this study was made, and reports on 21 other schools were so defective that they had to be eliminated, this study is based on 578 senior high schools and 21 one and two-year schools. The 600 schools out of the total of 715 is sufficient to be representative.

The percentage of schools offering each of the courses in the social science group are as follows:

<i>Course</i>	<i>Offered</i>	<i>Required</i>
Community Civics (First Year).....	14. %	4.5 %
Early European History	51.3 %	11.1 %
Modern European History	51. %	11.2 %
World History	32. %	7. %
English History	2.34 %	.34 %
American History	97.75 %	69. %
Civics (One-Year Course)	33. %	24.7 %
Constitution (Required of all who do not substitute the one-year Civics course)		
Social Civics (Half Year)	39.6 %	26. %
Sociology (Half Year)	34.2 %	3.1 %
Economics	50.8 %	6. %

There are two outstanding developments revealed by this tabulation: first, the trend toward world history; and second, the trend toward social science.

The state course of study requires a two-year minor in the social science group, when it is not chosen as a major, but it does not indicate who makes the choice of the major, the school or the student. The high school supervisors recommend that the choice be made by the school, and that it be ratified by the local school board in order to give stability to the course of study regardless of frequent changes in teaching personnel. There is no report available as to how the schools are meeting the question. A second phase of the major question arises out of the problem of what combination of subjects should be chosen for that purpose. A third phase of the problem is who shall determine the combination of subjects chosen for both the major and minor.

While there is no direct evidence on the first phase of the question as to who shall make the choice of the major when required, there is indirect evidence that throws some light on prevailing tendencies. The principals' report blanks distinguish between specific courses required by the school and those left to election by the student. If three years or more of subjects are required it is evident that such a school requires social science as a major and specifies the content of at least three years of the work. If less

than three years are required there can be no conclusion, as the subjects required may form the basis of a major, the remainder to be chosen by the student, or the whole of the major may be left to the choice of the student. The following tabulation of 578 schools indicates the extent of conclusions on the first phase of the question.

<i>No. of Years Required</i>	<i>No. of Schools</i>	<i>Percentage of 578</i>
None	82	14. %
1	181	31.3%
2	177	30.6%
2½	42	7.2%
3	43	7.4%
3½	15	2.5%
4 or more	33	6. %

Summarizing the table it reveals that three years or over are required in 93 schools or 16 per cent., which means that these schools not only require a social science major, but that they specify three or more years of the subject-matter which shall apply on that major. Schools requiring two or two and a half years number 219 or 38 per cent., which may easily become majors by adding by student election either a half year or a year, as the case may be, to the school requirement. Adding the two groups together, 312 schools or 54 per cent. require two or more years in the group, and it is probable that practically all of the students graduated from these schools will have completed a social science major. To these may be added numerous students in the remaining 46 per cent. of the schools who may voluntarily choose to fill this group for their major. This conclusion is strengthened by the previous study of students entering college in the fall of 1926, 70 per cent. of whom offered the equivalent of a major in the social science group. The probabilities are that the inauguration of the major-minor system will tend to increase the average amount of work done in the group. On that question, however, definite conclusions cannot be drawn for another two years when the first class will be graduated under the new system.

The second phase of the major-minor problem is the determination of the content of the requirements. In the four-year group 77 per cent. of the schools specify Early European, Modern European and American history with one or more years of social science; civics or constitution combined with economics or sociology or both. A combination of world and American history with two years of social science are specified in 11 per cent. of the schools. In the three-and-a-half-year group 40 per cent. of the schools specify Early European, Modern European and American history with a half year of constitution, while 33 per cent. specify world and American history with a year and a half of social science, usually civics, economics and sociology. In the three-year group 35 per cent. specify world and American history with civics, 23 per cent. specify Early European and American history with civics, 17 per cent. specify Modern European and American history with civics, while 9 per cent. specify American history with two years of social science made up of civic courses, economics and sociology. It should be noted that it

is in this three-year group that any substantial number of schools is found which omit European history or which devote the larger part of the time required to the social sciences as distinguished from history. This tendency becomes more marked in the remaining groups.

In the two-and-a-half-year group 35 per cent. specify world and American history with constitution, 23 per cent. specify American history and civics with economics or sociology, or constitution, economics and sociology, 14 per cent. specify Modern and American history and constitution, 14 per cent. specify Early European and American history with constitution. In the two-year group 92.6 per cent. specify American history and civics, and four schools omit history altogether. In the one-year group 61 per cent. specify American history and 32 per cent. civics.

A summary from the above indicates that in the three and a half and four-year groups the combination of Early European, Modern European and American history with civics dominate. In the two and a half and three-year groups the combination of world and American history with civics or constitution dominates. In the two-year group American history and civics are chosen almost unanimously, and in the one-year group either American history or civics are usually required. In respect to the European history situation the following figures are of interest: 39 schools or 6.7 per cent. require both Early and Modern European history, while 68 schools or 11.7 per cent. require either world history or only Modern history, and 24 schools or 4.1 per cent. require Early European history without modern.

THE TREND OF DEVELOPMENT OVER FIFTEEN YEARS

The trend of development over the last fifteen years can now be summarized. In 1911 ancient history enrollments were almost equal to all the other history together. The curricular adjustments by 1921 indicated a balance between the Early and Modern European courses which is confirmed by the college entrance credits offered by the graduating class of 1926. The modern history was slightly greater than the Early European. A similar balance is indicated by the courses of study as projected for the next high school generation.

The above conclusions are distinctly important when it is remembered that there has been a decided shift in emphasis within the courses from ancient to modern history. In 1911 ancient history ended about 800 A. D., while since the World War the division point is 1500 to 1700, throwing seven to ten centuries of history back into the first course, and permitting a corresponding expansion of detail in modern history. The development of world history now represented in about one-third of the schools reduces the year and a half devoted to ancient and mediaeval history in 1911 to about ten or twelve weeks of background for the remainder of the year's work in modern history. It has truly been a revolution in European history teaching.

American history in 1911 occupied a fairly large place in the enrollments of students when allowance

is made for the number of students who never go beyond the second or third year, and thus may have been enrolled in ancient history in the first year and even modern in the second, but never reach the fourth year where American history is offered. In 1926 it was offered by 81 per cent. of students for college entrance. The patriotic motive has usually been strong enough to support the course in American history, a motive which is absent in the case of other history courses, so the great revolution in American history has come in the content not in the numbers. The book in use in 1911 devoted 476 pages to American history to the close of the Civil War, and 95 pages to the period since that date, or a ratio of about five to one. The present text devotes 420 pages to the former and 190 pages to the latter period, or a ratio of a little over two to one. If the teacher follows a suggestion made in the course of study that colonial history may be omitted it reduces the two periods to a ratio of three to two.

As already indicated in the case of civics the Committee of Seven in 1899 included civics as a part of American history. By 1911 the separation of the two subjects was taking place throughout the country. The civics enrollment in Kansas stood considerably below American history and in many cases the only civics taught was taught in connection with the American history. Community civics became the fad about 1914, and was exploited at every meeting where history and civics teachers came together. By 1921 it was found in over 14 per cent. of the schools and the regular civics course was expanded to one year—a remarkable growth since 1899. By 1926 community civics had fallen to 9 per cent. in the group of students entering college, although in the high school courses of study it remained at 14 per cent. These figures do not include data on the junior high schools which offer community civics in the last or ninth year. New courses called industrial civics, economic civics, social civics, and vocational civics are occasional offerings. As pointed out before, a student in some schools may ignore history and complete a major in the social science group by three years of civics and then take a fourth year in economics and sociology. Economics was the new social science in the high school curriculum in 1911, and was offered in only a few schools. By 1926 it was presented by 31 per cent. of the students for college entrance, and is offered in half of the high schools for the year 1926-27. Sociology does not appear in the studies of the high school curriculum until 1921 when it was offered in but one of the schools studied. By 1926 it was offered by 13 per cent. of the students for college entrance and in the high school courses of study for 1926 it appears in 34 per cent. of the schools of the state. Six schools requiring three years of work in the social science group specify two years of social science to one of history, and seven schools requiring four years in the group specify two years each of social science and history. This is carrying social science to extremes, and the question of the future is how far this tendency may go.

CONCLUSIONS

In view of the facts presented concerning the high school situation the following conclusions are submitted for consideration. There must be a balance maintained between the historical and the social science divisions of the social science group. A student cannot arrive at any real understanding of civics, economics or sociology without a knowledge of Modern European and American history as a background. Contemporary problems are not local or national, they are world problems and they have their roots in the past. It would seem trite to make such a statement in this connection if it were not for the fact that quite a number of men who enjoy a statewide reputation as educators, and who hold positions of influence, insist that it is not necessary for a student or a teacher in the high schools to know history. To them pedagogy and social science in the narrower sense are everything. It is unfortunate for the present problem of curricular adjustment that the social sciences have broken away from the History Round Table of the State Teachers Association, taking the attitude of rivalry rather than that of co-operation. In spite of the breach in the ranks of the teachers of this group of subjects in the high school the History Round Table must take the broader attitude in considering curricular adjustment and meet the question from the point of view of the whole field.

It is clear that history must make concessions in the amount of time allotted in the high school curriculum, but in constructing the program a balance should be maintained which will meet the reasonable minimum requirements, not the desires, of both groups. The figures on subjects offered for college entrance show that three years in the group is not an excessive requirement, as 70 per cent. of the students offered three years or more. The minimum history requirement for the major in the high school is two years; world history and American history. The ideal social science course would be a one-year course which combines civics with elementary economics and sociology, and to some extent such a course can be worked out of the present junior civics course based upon Guitteau. The teacher can do some constructive work on that course if he will. However, probably the most practicable arrangement is constitution one-half year, economics one-half year, and sociology one-half year. This program would give to history two years of time and to the social sciences one year and a half. If the one-year civics course is offered instead of the constitution it would increase the social sciences to two years and place them upon an equality with history with respect to time requirements. In schools where economics and sociology are not offered the most desirable combination is world and American history with the one-year civics course. The combination for the minor would be world history and the one-year civics course. In either case the selection of these basic courses should be made by the school, in order to insure a balanced program instead of the freak combinations which are so

commonly offered under present conditions. Early European history without Modern is of little value, and two or three years of civics which are largely repetitions of material are of little advantage to the student and are expensive and inefficient for the school. The program outlined above is within the reach of even the smallest schools, and almost without exception would be an improvement over the hit-and-miss methods of the largest schools. The study of college entrance credits offered by the high school class of 1926 emphasized the fact that the least defensible combinations of courses come most frequently from the largest schools. These schools are overloaded with a multiplicity of courses which complicates the problem of teacher preparation and certainly reduces efficiency by scattering the effort of both the student and teacher. This should not be misunderstood to mean that elective courses should be eliminated, but rather that a balanced course should be required as the basic minimum to which the student may add such electives as the facilities of the school seem to permit or which the school may consider desirable.

CERTIFICATION OF TEACHERS

The question of certification and preparation of teachers should be linked with the discussion of the curriculum. It is found that in the present year only about 285 teachers in the 620 high schools studied are devoting half or over of their time to the teaching of the social science group. These 285 teachers represent only 237 of the 620 schools or 38 per cent. Another fact which emphasizes this point even more strongly is that a considerable number of the 285 teachers have no special training in the social science group. The courses in the social science group are usually scattered, one or two each, among various members of the faculties; sometimes they fall into the hands of teachers who have special training, more frequently not. This is not the fault of the small school, especially as some casual observers insist. Some of the worst offenders are among the eighteen largest high schools in the state representing cities of over 10,000 population, or in other schools nearly as large. For example, in one school of 22 teachers six are teaching history or social science courses, while only two of them have any special preparation in the subject. Only one of the six is devoting his whole time to the courses in the group. In another large school there are seventeen teachers, eight of whom have one or two courses in the group. Another school of fourteen teachers assigns all social science to two teachers, one of whom majored in college in language, the other in business administration. Still another school of over twenty teachers employs five who majored in history, three who minored in history and one who minored in sociology. Only five of the nine are teaching social science courses, the other four are teaching in some field where they have no special preparation.

Inexperienced teachers are usually required to start their career in small schools, which means that they must teach two groups of subjects. Further-

more, as over 60 per cent. of the high schools are rural or small town schools it is clear that a large part of them must remain in the small school. The logic of this situation is that every teacher should develop a balanced major field and a minor field in his college course which will prepare him to teach two groups of high school subjects. The most frequent combinations with the social sciences are English, Latin or mathematics.

Probably the most important step to be taken in educational legislation, as it applies to the high school situation, is a revision of the regulations concerning teacher preparation and certification. Several states, among them Pennsylvania, New Jersey and Indiana, have provided that high school certificates shall be granted only on completion of a major and minor in an accredited college and that such certificate shall be valid only for the teaching of the subjects named in the certificate. Such a bill was presented to the last Kansas Legislature and is known as the Holton bill, but it was defeated. Such a measure would prevent the present prevailing practice among superintendents, principals and school boards of employing teachers to teach subjects for which they have no preparation. In conclusion, then, the two major steps to be taken are: first, to require a definite balanced major or minor, and second, to urge a form of certification of teachers which will insure prepared teachers not only in the social science group, but throughout the high school.

Program

NATIONAL COUNCIL FOR THE SOCIAL STUDIES SEVENTH ANNUAL MEETING DALLAS, TEXAS FEBRUARY 26, 1927

10.00 A. M.

Significant Activities in Social Studies Teaching

Miss Edna Stone, University High School, Oakland, Cal.

Kinds of Research Needed in the Solution of the Social Studies Problem

Professor A. C. Krey, University of Minnesota and Chairman of the Committee on Social Studies, American Historical Association.

The Objectives of the Social Studies

Professor Edgar Dawson, Hunter College, and Sec'y-Treas. of the National Council for the Social Studies.

12.15

Informal Luncheon

2.30 P. M.

Some Types of Thought Questions and Their Use in History Classes

Miss Elizabeth Morey, High School, San Antonio, Texas

The Training of the Social Studies Teacher: A Dilemma

Miss Julie Koch, Roosevelt High School, St. Louis, Mo.

REPORTS OF COMMITTEES

Business Meeting

The Business Meeting will be asked to vote on the question: Shall the date of the annual Business Meeting be changed to the July meeting of the National Education Association?

6.30 P. M.

Dinner Session for Board of Directors

Making History Real

A Guide to Materials for Vitalizing and Visualizing History

BY ANNETTE GLICK, FRANKLIN HIGH SCHOOL, LOS ANGELES

II Wall Charts

It is noticeable that the best of the wall charts have been created and designed for the classical subjects, not only because the study of the classics is older than history instruction, but because the faculties of the classics both in the universities and high schools are on the defensive when placed in competition with the more popular vocational subjects and are, therefore, both aggressive and progressive.

This, however, is an advantage rather than a disadvantage, as there is a very close, natural correlation between the history and Latin departments, and where the charts are adapted to constant use in both places the pressure that must necessarily be brought to bear upon the powers that be to secure needed equipment gains in force by repetition. When the principal or Board of Education can be shown that the large expenditure is to be divided in half, as the same equipment will supply both departments, part of the idea that the only material necessary for History and Latin is the blackboard and textbook will be broken down.

Both foreign and domestic prices are always subject to constant change, but especially due to the one-time fluctuation of the mark and the recurrence of the same phenomenon with the franc and the lira are the following prices approximate only. German prices are now generally quoted in renten marks (rm.), but the franc at this time has not yet been stabilized, and French publishers' prices can be considered nothing more than daily quotations.

Though in making selections in large quantities from the twelve or so series of inimitable historical charts in highly concentrated form produced by A. Pichler's "Widow and Son of Vienna," the low prices in marks are tempting, it will generally be found that by the time postage, packing, and insurance charges are added it is as cheap, and always quicker and more convenient to stock up from such American dealers as Denoyer-Geppert or A. Bruderhausen. (Importations designed for public institutions are duty free.)

Western European agents for the Pichler firm are the publishers, F. E. Wachsmuth, of Leipzig, who produce several valuable sets of historical charts in their own right, and the large concern of Koehler and Volckmar, also of Leipzig. The latter's catalog, "Fachkatalog III. Geographie und Hilfswissenschaften," on History, Geography, etc., is a manual of visual education material which should be acquired by every teacher, if for no other purpose than as a means of determining the advance which Europe has

made over us, in spite of our supremacy in the visual field of motion pictures, in the adaptation of realia to educational method.

Other variations in prices occur for any number of styles of mounting. In quantities the most practical form for foreign purchases is generally the chart with a brown paper-backed reinforcement with edges of linen tape. In the case of the Lehmann charts a considerable saving can be effected by ordering the plain prints with cloth backing, and then reinforcing them with "half-rounds" in the wood shop at a cost of one cent a foot. A loop of tape must be tacked into the center of the wood rollers with gimp tacks for tying or hanging. This amounts to a saving of about sixty cents on a chart, or seven dollars a dozen.

A large number of the Lehmann, Gall and Rebhann, Gurlitt, Jacobi, Cybulski, Langl, Lohmeyer and other charts of the Pichler and Wachsmuth series relating to the classical studies, together with much other valuable visual education material on Greek and Roman History, may be seen at the Classical Center of the Los Angeles City Schools, Miss Josephine Abel, Director (Chamber of Commerce Building), while the pioneer headquarters for the collection and study of similar material is now, as always, the Service Bureau for Classical Teachers of Columbia University Teachers' College, Professor Frances E. Sabin, Director (Room 101, 525 W. 120th Street, N. Y.).

ARNOLD HISTORICAL PICTURES.

A series of thirty pictures in color, accompanied by a descriptive account on English history.

Representative titles are the following:

AHP10 Battle of Hastings.

AHP15 A tournament in the time of Richard I.

AHP23 Caxton showing his printing press to Edward IV.

AHP25 Joan of Arc raising the siege of Orleans.

AHP40 The Armada in the channel.

Size: 40 x 36 inches. Paper, \$1.75. On cloth, \$2.50.

Denoyer-Geppert Co., 5238 Ravenswood Avenue, Chicago, Ill.

BENNDORF, VORGESCHICHTLICHER TAFELN.

Five charts on prehistoric man, a satisfactory addition to a subject very sparsely supplied, with explanatory text, reproducing implements, utensils, domestic objects, etc., from the stone, bronze, and iron age, in the original sizes.

Size: 33 x 23½ inches. 3.75 marks each.

Koehler und Volckmar, A.-G., Abt. Lehrmittel, Täubchenweg 19/21, Leipzig, Germany.

CYBULSKI, TABULAE QUIBUS ANTIQUITATES GRAECAE ET ROMANAE ILLUSTRANTUR.

A series of twenty-three imported charts lithographed in durable and beautiful colors depicting the life of the Greeks and Romans. Complete, artistic, authoritative. The

superiority of the foreign color print is often pronounced, and in the case of these lithographs the artistic pleasure experienced causes students to be attracted to them spontaneously with a resulting study of the technical details through unconstrained and natural means.

Among the most useful subjects are the following:

- III. Greek coins.
- IV. Navigation.
- VIII. Roman camp at the time of the Republic and the Empire.
- V. Roman arms.
- IX. Roman implements of war.
- *X. The Greek home. Greek architecture.
- *XI. The Roman house.

The above two are among the best charts available in any form of illustrative material on the Greek and Roman period.

Plans of Athens, the Piraeus, ancient Rome, the Forum and the fora of the Emperors are Nos. XIV and XV, a and b.

Others designed more especially for classical study are the costume charts (XIX, XX), and the Greek and Roman military uniforms (I, II, VI, VII).

As the charts are designed primarily for the classical studies the text is in Greek and Latin, but the details and general arrangement are self-evident, and through the correlation with Latin and Greek classes their usefulness is rather enhanced than limited.

Size: 28 x 33½, \$2.25 ea. In Germany, 4 to 10 m. ea.

A. Bruderhausen, 47 W. 47th Street, N. Y.

A. J. Nystrom, 2251 Calumet Avenue, Chicago, Ill.

Koehler u. Volckmar, A.-G., Abt. Lehrmittel, Täubchenweg 19/21, Leipzig, Germany.

ENGLEDER, VATERLANDISCHE GESCHICHTS-BILDER.

Twenty-two charts in full color from original paintings, with descriptive text, designed especially for German history, but including a number of value for general European history, as:

- 8. Conquest of Jerusalem by Godfrey of Bouillon, 1099.
- 13. The first printed book, 1461.
- 16b. Gustavus Adolphus before the Battle of Lützen, 1632.
- 21. Retreat of Napoleon from Russia, 1813.

Size: 31 x 24 inches. 2.50 m. ea.

Koehler u. Volckmar, A.-G., Abt. Lehrmittel, Täubchenweg 19/21, Leipzig, Germany.

FOSTER BROTHERS.

Six reproductions in color of panels in the House of Lords, including:

- 1. The age of discovery.
- 4. Mary's entry into London as Queen.
- 5. Cardinal Wolsey at the trial of Catherine of Aragon.

Size: 21 x 21 inches. \$7.50 each.

Foster Brothers, 78 Summer Street, Arlington, Mass.

GALL UND REBHANN, WANDTAFELN ZUR VERANSCHAULICHUNG DES LEBENS DER GRIECHEN UND ROMER.

Thirty-three classical wall pictures, produced by A. Pichler's Widow and Son in Vienna, in three colors, on the civilization of the Greeks and Romans, accompanied by an explanatory text pamphlet of 62 pages, in German.

Representative titles are the following:

- 5, 6, and 7. Greek orders of architecture: Doric, Ionic, Corinthian.
- 11. Teaching of gymnastics.
- 26. Roman household furniture.
- 27. Fortress of Tiryns (plan).
- 28. Plan of the Acropolis of Athens.
- 30. Roman house.

A full description is given in the circular, "Lehrmittel für den Geschichtsunterricht. Wandtafeln u. Modelle zur Veranschaulichung des Lebens der Griechen und Römer."

Size: 26 x 34 inches. Series of 33, \$14.00. Not sold

separately. In Germany, 25.50 m. the set, or separately, 1.02 m.

A. Bruderhausen, 47 W. 47th Street, N. Y.

A. Pichler's Witwe und Sohn, Lehrmittelanstalt, Margaretenplatz 2, Wien V. Austria.

GURLITT ANSCHAUUNGSTAFELN ZU CAESARS BELLUM GALLICUM.

A series of seven lithographed wall plates (some in full color), of Caesar's Gallic War, produced by A. Pichler's Widow and Son.

Representative titles are the following:

- 1. Roman camp.
- 2. Siege works before Alesia.
- 4. Vercingetorix and his staff.
- 5. Caesar landing in Britannia.
- 7. Soldiers of the legion.

Size: 26 x 38 inches. The set, \$14.00. In Germany, 4 m. each.

A. Bruderhausen, 47 W. 47th Street, N. Y.

A. J. Nystrom, 2251 Calumet Avenue, Chicago, Ill.

Koehler u. Volckmar, A.-G., Abt. Lehrmittel, Täubchenweg 19/21, Leipzig, Germany.

A. Pichler's Witwe und Sohn, Lehrmittelanstalt, Margaretenplatz 2, Wien V. Austria.

HOFFMAN U. SCHMIDT, WANDBILDER ZUR GRIECHISCHEN UND RÖMISCHEN GESCHICHTE UND SAGE.

Seventeen colored charts on ancient and medieval history, produced by A. Pichler's Widow and Son, similar to the Lehmann series and supplementing it, superbly created and characterized by painstaking research by Professors Hoffman, Schmidt, et al.

The following are unequalled in coloring and subject matter, a number such as "Socrates in prison" (No. 5), and "The meeting of Coriolanus and his mother" (No. 15), being worthy of framing:

- 1. The battle of Salamis.
- 10. The oracle at Delphi.
- 11. Alexander and Darius at the battle of Issus.
- 14. Greek symposium.
- 17. Greek theater.
- 2. Cicero's speech against Catiline.
- 3. Chariot race in the Circus Maximus.
- 6. The Gauls in Rome.
- 8. Marcus Aurelius leaves Vindobona for battle against the Marcomanes.
- 12. Roman street life.

This series is included by Denoyer-Geppert with the Lehmann charts for convenience, as they are equally authentic and skillfully reproduced, and valuable as well for their scholarship as for their mechanical detail. For the sake of simplification, the name "Lehmann Charts" is used to designate both.

Size: 35 x 26 inches. \$1.25 each. As with all others, various prices for mounting. In Germany, 2.20 and 4 m. ea.

Denoyer-Geppert, 5238 Ravenswood Avenue, Chicago, Ill.

A. Bruderhausen, 47 W. 47th St., N. Y.

F. E. Wachsmuth, Leipziger Schulbilder Verlag, Kreuzstrasse 3, Leipzig, Germany.

A. Pichler's Witwe und Sohn, Buchhandlung und Lehrmittelanstalt, Wien V, Austria.

HOUSE OF LORDS PANELS.

The distinctive series of color facsimiles from the panels in the Houses of Parliament, produced by the Fine Arts Publishing Co. of England, deserves a place high in the scale of the most beautiful as well as useful illustrative material. The subjects lend themselves to a blue-ribbon form of artistic reproduction, and the series as achieved is too little known in the schools of America.

The so-called House of Lords (Tudor) panels are not only inspiring as artistic creations in form and color, but richly stimulating in detail and in their transmission as by magic of the spirit of the time. To quote the art critic, M. H. Spielmann, "They are presented with a splendour of red and black and gold, while historical accuracy and truth have not been sacrificed."

804. Plucking the red and white roses in the Old Temple Garden. (The origin of parties.)
803. Henry VII granting the charter to John Cabot and his three sons. (The Age of discovery.)
802. Erasmus and Thomas More visit the children of Henry VII. (The new learning.)
805. Henry VIII at the trial of Catherine of Aragon.
801. Latimer preaching before Edward VI at St. Paul's Cross. (The Protestant Reformation.)
806. The entry of Queen Mary into London, 1553.

The second, No. 803, typifying the age of discovery, is somewhat more decorative and symbolical than the others and less productive of detail.

Each picture is accompanied by a full explanation, with a key to the principal portraits and figures.

To these should be added the two central groups from the huge frescoes, by Maclise, in the Royal Gallery of the Houses of Parliament:

The death of Nelson.

The meeting of Blücher and Wellington after Waterloo.

Size: 25 x 30 in., 1 pound, 1s. ea. The set of 6 Tudor panels, 5 pounds, 5s.

Among some other fifteen historical color facsimiles are the following subjects:

1. Building of the Roman wall.
2. How the Danes came up the Channel.
3. The Field of the Cloth of Gold.
4. King Charles at his trial at Westminster.
5. Napoleon at Arcole.
6. Surrender of the German fleet.
7. Unknown warrior's grave.

Size: varies, 21 x 21 to 34 x 27 in. 10s. 6d. to 21s. ea.

Fine Arts Publishing Co., 7 Newman Street, Oxford Street, London, W. 1.

JACOBI U. WOLTZE, DIE SAALBURG.

Six plates in color from excavations and restorations of the Roman camp at Saalburg, one double, including the Porta Decumana, Roman ramparts, and various other structural military details, designed particularly for Latin classes, but having a decided value in Ancient history.

Size: 24 x 33 inches. \$8.00 the set. In Germany, 4.10 m. ea., Nos. 1 and 2 (double), 11.98 m.

A. Bruderhausen 47 W. 47th Street, N. Y.

A. Pichlers Witwe und Sohn, Lehrmittelanstalt, Margaretenplatz 2, Wien V, Austria.

LANGL, BILDER ZUR GESCHICHTE.

An extensive series of eighty charts in sepia on the architectural monuments of the world, produced by A. Pichler's and Son, and covering the principal erections of Egypt, Assyria, Persia, Greece, and Rome, the cathedrals, castles, municipal buildings of the Middle Ages, and the chief architectural achievements of Pisa, Florence, and Venice. About twenty-five of the series will be found constantly useful, for instance:

3. The Temple of Luxor.
11. The tomb of Cyrus.
73. The Temple of Karnak.
16. The Acropolis from the North.
17. The Acropolis from the South.
22. The Roman Forum (double).
72. Thermae of Caracalla.
29. House of the Tragic Poet, Pompeii.
45. Notre Dame.
46. Rheims Cathedral, etc.

Size: 30 x 23 inches. \$1.30 ea. In Germany, 2.80 and 3.20 m. ea.

A. Bruderhausen, 47 W. 47th Street, N. Y. (\$1.40 each).

A. Pichlers Witwe und Sohn, Lehrmittelanstalt, Margaretenplatz 2, Wien V, Austria.

LEHMANN, KULTURGESCHICHTLICHE BILDER.

A series of fifty color reproductions on Ancient, Medieval, and Modern history, produced by Pichler's in Vienna, as indispensable to the teaching of history as the blackboard and textbook. Large, accurate, complete, with a

variety of subject-matter and inimitable coloring. No expenditure is more justified than an investment in a minimum dozen of these wall charts. Such classics as the "Egyptian Death Rites," and the "Interior of a Roman House," are creations which, when they are universally known and used, will mark a decisive and satisfying step forward in the progress of history teaching. Their use is an experience for any student, and will do much to vitalize and perpetuate his history impressions.

The following representative titles, besides those already mentioned, are superior in treatment and comprehensive in subject-matter:

14. Pile-dwellers.
1. Egyptian architecture.
8. Reconstruction of the Roman Forum.
2. Feudal castle.
24. The ceremony of enfeoffment.
4. A tournament.
6. Siege of a city before the invention of gunpowder.
8. A citizen's living room.
9. In the cloister yard.
19. Handwriting of a monk.
16. The alchemist.
23. The guilds.
28. The meistersinger.
20. Examples of early printing.
15. War contributions, 1813.

The text is printed in German with English titles superimposed.

Write to Denoyer-Geppert or A. J. Nystrom and Co. for descriptive folder and full list of the Lehmann series, the Hoffman and Schmidt series being included.

Certain subjects of the Lehmann series, unique in their line, are indispensable to the study of the Industrial Revolution and modern economic history, as:

25. The first railroad.
27. The first steam-engine of James Watt.

Very few of the large series of fifty-one subjects from the Wachsmuth reproductions on Russian history, "Russische Kulturgeschichtliche Bilder," included by Denoyer-Geppert in the set of Lehmann charts, are worth the cost. A few useful selections are the following:

28. Court in the Muscovite realm (for the knout).
29. Court at the time of Russian laws. (Trial by ordeal.)
24. Peter the Great.
16. Abolition of serfdom.
44. In ravaged Moscow, 1812.

The geography series from Wachsmuth's set, "Geographische Charakterbilder," also produced under Lehmann's direction, includes a number of strictly historical as well as geographical subjects, as:

21. Pyramid of Gizeh.
18. Ruins of the Acropolis at Athens.
14. Ruins of the Roman Forum.
15. Naples and Mt. Vesuvius.
58. Recent eruption of Mt. Vesuvius.
52. Venice.

Two excellent bird's-eye views are found in Wachsmuth's series, "Welt und Volkswirtschaft":

3. Panama Canal.
8. The Dardanelles.

Size: 35 x 26 inches. Paper, \$1.25; Cloth, \$2.00. (Various prices for different mountings.) In Germany, 3 m. and 5.50 m. ea.

Nearly all the Lehmann, Wachsmuth, etc., charts may be secured from Denoyer-Geppert and A. J. Nystrom and Co. Others not listed will be secured by application. Bruderhausen specializes in aids for classical instruction and, therefore, carries a complete stock of the charts dealing with Greek and Roman history.

Denoyer-Geppert, 5238 Ravenswood Avenue, Chicago, Ill.

A. J. Nystrom, 2251 Calumet Avenue, Chicago, Ill.

A. Bruderhausen, 47 W. 47th Street, N. Y.

A. Pichlers Witwe und Sohn, Lehrmittelanstalt, Margaretenplatz 2, Wien V, Austria.

F. E. Wachsmuth, Leipziger Schulbilder Verlag, Kreuzstrasse 3, Leipzig, Germany.

Koehler u. Volckmar, A.-G., Abt. Lehrmittel, Täubchenweg 19/21, Leipzig, Germany.

LOHMEYER; WANDBILDER FÜR DEN GESCHICHTLICHEN UNTERRICHT.

Twenty-four large full-color charts, on Ancient and Medieval history, accompanied by an explanatory text in German. The emphasis is placed upon German history, but a number will be found decidedly useful for general European history, as:

5. Attack of the Athenian hoplites at Marathon. (Excellent.)
1. Roman camp. Trajan addressing his soldiers before battle.
- 17 and 18. (Double.) The triumphal entry of Caesar, 46 B. C.
4. Scene from the Crusades, 1147.
3. Henry V at the Diet of Worms.
10. The sea-robber, Klaus Störtebecker captured by the fleet of Hamburg (for battles of the Hansa towns).
23. Robbing of a wagon-train by a bandit-knight.
16. Wilhelm I at the battle of Gravelotte, August, 1870.
24. Columbus landing in America.

No. 23 is one of the best subjects procurable, with excellent detail and ingenious reconstruction.

Size: 39 x 29 inches. \$1.75 ea. In Germany, 4 and 6.45 m. ea.

A. Bruderhausen, 47 W. 47th Street, N. Y.

F. E. Wachsmuth, Leipziger Schulbilder Verlag, Kreuzstrasse 3, Leipzig, Germany.

A. Pichlers Witwe und Sohn, Lehrmittelanstalt, Margaretenplatz 2, Wien V, Austria.

LONGMANS' HISTORICAL WALL PICTURES.

Twelve color reproductions from authentic historical paintings illustrating significant phases of English history. These are remarkable not only for the excellence of the coloring, but for the research accompanying each production and the careful attention to exact detail.

Representative titles are the following:

1. The Roman wall.
2. Harold's last stand at Senlac.
6. King John seals the Great Charter.
7. King Henry at Agincourt.
8. The Armada in the Channel.
9. Charles I's visit to the House of Commons to seize the five members.

Size: 24 x 18 inches. \$1.25 ea. Set of 12, \$14.00.

Longmans, Green & Co., 55 Fifth Avenue, N. Y.

MEDICI LITHOGRAPHS.

A small series, in color, including the Houses of Parliament, the defeat of the Spanish Armada, and the barons presenting the Magna Charta to King John.

Size: 20 x 29 inches. \$1.50 ea.

Medici Society of America, Department L, 755 Boylston Street, Boston, Mass.

MEINHOLDS, PICTURES FOR GERMAN AND AUSTRIAN HISTORY.

In spite of the particular nature of the title of this series, the set contains a number of charts illustrating the history of Prussia, Saxony, and Austria which are extremely valuable for general European history. Illustrations are the following:

16. Gutenberg.
18. Luther burning the papal bull.
29. Napoleon's meeting with Frederick William and Alexander at Tilsit.
24. Blücher at Waterloo.

Size: 15 x 20 inches. 4.00 marks ea.

A. Bruderhausen, 47 W. 47th Street, N. Y. (\$2.00 each).

NEUE WANDBILDER FÜR DEN GESCHICHTSUNTERRICHT.

A miscellaneous collection of twenty full-color charts,

produced by A. Pichler's Widow and Son, with an explanatory text, some six or seven of which will be found adaptable, as:

20. Mozart before Queen Maria Theresa (for its excellent illustrations of contemporary costumes).
6. The North Pole expedition of 1872-74 (for recent polar explorations).
10. Rudolph von Hapsburg sentences the robber-knight (supplementing as it does No. 23 in the Lohmeyer series, q. v.).

Two or three are valuable for their own sake, No. 17 being one of the best subjects procurable for subject-matter and mechanical execution in any series.

17. Marcus Aurelius leaving Vindobona for battle against the Marcomanes.

19. Wallenstein and Tilly in council of war.

Size: 35 x 26 inches. 2.20 and 4 m. ea.

A. Pichlers Witwe und Sohn, Lehrmittelanstalt, Margaretenplatz 2, Wien V, Austria.

F. E. Wachsmuth, Leipziger Schulbilder Verlag, Kreuzstrasse 3, Leipzig, Germany.

A. Bruderhausen, 47 W. 47th Street, N. Y. (\$1.50 each).

OLDENBOURGS, CLASSICAL CHARTS.

Four superior charts in black and white with exceptionally clear detail of restorations of the Acropolis, the Roman Forum, Olympia, and Delphi.

Size: 30 x 26 inches. 5.00 marks ea. (\$2.50).

A. Bruderhausen, 47 W. 47th Street, N. Y.

PARMENTIER, TABLEAUX MURAUX D'HISTOIRE.

This is an important series of colored charts on French history which offers the nearest approach to the extensive German sets of Lehmann, Wachsmuth, Cybulski, Jacobi, Loymeyer, etc., on Greek, Roman, and German history. The charts do not equal the German editions for size, coloring, or general mechanical execution, but they are apparently the only effort at a consecutive history of France in chart form. They are especially to be recommended, however, for their subject-matter, being made up of selected illustrations from the four volumes of Parmentier's *Album Historique*, the standard historical album in any language, and as such, they must be placed well up in the rank of large-size historical illustrative material.

The set includes ten charts, printed double-face, i. e., on both sides, accompanied by explanatory notes. The number of figures to the chart varies from nine large illustrations on the French Revolution to twenty-nine and thirty on those dealing with feudalism and the Middle Ages.

The subject divisions are as follows:

1. The Gauls.
- 1a. The Merovingians and Carolingians.
- 2 and 2a. The Middle Ages. Villages, peasants, nobles, feudal castles.
- 3 and 3a. The monarchy absolute. King, court, nobles, warfare.
- 4 and 4a. The monarchy absolute (continued). Church, persecutions, the bourgeoisie, artisans, peasants.
5. The Revolution and the Empire. Fall of the Bastille, meeting of the Convention, Napoleon's retreat from Russia.
- 5a. Contemporary civilization. Universal suffrage, the courts, etc.

Size: 38 x 46 inches. On heavy cardboard, reinforced with tape, 2 charts, 25 fr. ea. (double face).

Also, by M. Ernest Lavisse are the twelve colored charts on the Great War taken from military documents in the photographic section of the French army, including:

2. Passage of the Yser.
5. Bayonet attack.
7. Battery of "75's" at Soissons.
8. Night attack, Champagne, 1915.
9. Aerial combat.
11. Arrival of the wounded at the Gare du Nord.

Printed on very thin paper. Explanatory notes to the 12 charts. 1.75 fr.

Size: 35½ x 25 inches. 7.50 fr. ea.

Librairie Armand Colin, 103 Boul. Saint-Michel, Paris, France.

PHILIPS' ART PICTURES FOR SCHOOLS.

A. An interesting and familiar series designed for elementary grades, but which has a certain supplementary value in intermediate and high school history, is the set of eight Philips' charts on the Children of History, printed in full color in three divisions or panels, each section featuring some phase of the life of the time, as games, customs, costumes, architectural features, etc.:

- | | |
|------------------|-------------------------|
| 1. Early Briton. | 5. Norman. |
| 2. Roman. | 6. Tudor (Elizabethan). |
| 3. Saxon. | 7. Stuart. |
| 4. Dane. | 8. Early Georgian. |

Size: 36 x 27½ inches. Paper, \$1.75; Cloth, \$2.50.

B. Philips' series of large-size air photographs will be found an effective addition to the scarce supply of illustrative material in chart form on the present industrial and economic era. The series is made up of enlargements from actual aerial photographs, excellently reproduced on large enamelled cards, and accompanied by brief notes.

The most useful subjects are:

6. Shipbuilding.
8. Steel works.
12. Oil jetties and stores.

Size: 36 x 27½ inches. 2s. ea.

Denoyer-Geppert, 5238 Ravenswood Avenue, Chicago, Ill.
George Philip and Son, Ltd., 32 Fleet Street, London, E. C. 4.

ROYAL EXCHANGE FRESCOES.

Of similar value with the Tudor panels in the Houses of Parliament, are the full-color facsimiles of the frescoes in the ambulatory of the Royal Exchange, London, produced by the Fine Arts Publishing Co. "Edition de luxe" is not merely a trade name. It is a well-deserved title, and with the Tudor panels, these reproductions are notable as supplying to many an enjoyment and fund of historical fact which up to now have been available only to the few initiate of London:

811. The Phoenicians trading with the ancient Britons.
807. Alfred the Great rebuilding the walls of London.
812. King John signing the Magna Charta.
809. Queen Elizabeth visits the first Royal Exchange.
810. Founding of the Bank of England.
813. Charles I visits the guildhall to demand the surrender of the five members.

Size: 30 x 25 inches. 1 pound, 1s. ea. 5 pounds, 5s. the set of 6, enclosed in a portfolio.

Fine Arts Publishing Co., 7 Newman Street, Oxford Street, London, W. I.

SCHNEIDER AND METZE WALL PICTURES.

A series of ten large photographic charts, showing the chief architectural features of typical Egyptian, Greek, Roman, Gothic, and Renaissance forms. In smaller size, published in a handbook with full explanatory text, 1.60 marks. No. 6, giving a cross-section of a cathedral with clerestory, triforium, flying buttresses, etc., clearly indicated, is especially valuable.

Size: 35 x 26 inches. 20.00 marks ea.

A. Bruderhausen, 47 W. 47th Street, N. Y. (\$15.00 the set).

SCHULBILDER-NEUIGKEITEN.

A single large chart in full color on prehistoric man, in twenty-six parts, showing the skulls and bony fragments upon which modern facts (or hypotheses, depending upon one's attitude to the Dayton trial!) are based, illustrations of chipping, flaking, and bone implements, extinct mammals, etc.

Size: 35 x 59 inches. 14 m.

F. E. Wachsmuth, Leipziger Schulbilder Verlag, Kreuzstrasse 3, Leipzig, Germany.

SEEMANNS WANDBILDER.

An extensive collection of two hundred excellent photo-

graphs finished in deep sepia on Ancient and Medieval art and architecture.

Representative titles are the following:

- The Dying Gaul.
- The Discus Thrower.
- Frieze of the Parthenon.
- Arch of Constantine.
- Rheims Cathedral.
- Court of the Doge's Palace.
- Delaroche, Napoleon I.

Size: 24 x 29½. \$2.00 ea. In Germany, 7.82 m. ea.

A. J. Nystrom, 2251 Calumet Avenue, Chicago, Ill.

A. Bruderhausen, 47 W. 47th Street, N. Y. (26 numbers of the series).

Kochler u. Volckmar, A.-G., Abt. Lehrmittel, Täubchenweg, 19/21, Leipzig, Germany.

A. Pichlers Witwe und Sohn, Lehrmittelanstalt, Margartenplatz 2, Wien V, Austria.

VAQUEZ: TABLEAU MURAL D' HISTOIRE DE FRANCE.

Two double-face colored charts, uniform in size with Parmentier's Tableaux Muraux d' Histoire, representing French history in graphic form. Royal lines, chronological tables.

On heavy cardboard, reinforced with tape.

Size: 38 x 46 inches. The set of 2, double-face, 40 fr.

Librairie Armand Colin, 103 Boul. Saint-Michel, Paris, France.

WACHSMUTH, BILDER ZUR WELTGESCHICHTE.

Nine large charts in full color on later German history from original research by Professor A. Kampf, Professor Knötel and others, including subjects on the World War and Napoleon. Such a subject as Professor Stöwer's, "The Sinking of an Allied Merchant Vessel by a German U-Boat" (No. 7), should be used with discretion as almost too real for contemporary use, but as part of the pictorial history of the World War it has its place.

Other subjects are:

2. Meeting of Queen Louise with Napoleon at Tilsit.
3. Napoleon's retreat from Russia.
4. Meeting of Wilhelm with Napoleon III. (Excellent.)
5. The Congress of Vienna.
6. The beginning of the Great War, 1914.
8. War planes in action.
9. Trench warfare.

No. 5, on the Congress of Vienna, is a series of portraits in black and white with an accompanying key.

Size: 25 x 38 inches. 4 and 6.45 m. ea.

F. E. Wachsmuth, Leipziger Schulbilder Verlag, Kreuzstrasse 3, Leipzig, Germany.

A. Pichlers Witwe und Sohn, Lehrmittelanstalt, Margartenplatz 2, Wien V, Austria.

III Railroad Posters

The war saw the advent of wall posters displayed in railway stations, banks, or on fences and trees, which were designed by some of the leading artists of the land. A number of the railway companies of Europe have continued this tradition, and as with the London, Midland, and Scottish Railway of England and other lines have employed Royal Academicians and other eminent artists to design advertisements which can be placed without qualification in the category of art products. They are more than advertisements, rather reproductions oftentimes of the chefs-d'oeuvre of our greatest living artists, and when combined with historical value in subject matter, introduce through the low price at which they are procurable a knowledge and

appreciation of modern art as well as a generous fund of historical fact and information. The French company, the Chemin de Fer de Paris à Orléans, has employed Constant Duval, and the London, Midland, and Scottish Railway, Maurice Greiffenhagen, Stanhope Forbes, and any number of others.

Many posters are of strictly historical use and will form an interesting addition to any library of illustrative material. Such a subject as the London, Midland, and Scottish Railway's poster of Carlisle, the gateway to Scotland, showing St. George as a mounted knight in armor, with a portcullis and feudal trappings in the background, executed by Maurice Greiffenhagen, is a subject which for coloring, rich historical detail, and sheer romance and imagination is inimitable, worthy of framing, and capable of adding ten years to the normal span of the teacher's life.

The thirty or so posters of the Chemins de Fer, Paris, Lyons, Mediterranean, include about ten valuable historical subjects, a few of which, such as those on Venice, the Roman Forum, the Pont du Gard, and Nîmes are gems which will enliven any room, give it an aspect of cheerfulness and accomplishment, and link up in the youthful mind the practical daily application of these extraneous facts of history to business life.

Besides those mentioned, the following are also useful:

Basilique Romane de Vézelay.

Pont-en-Royans.

Château de Chastellux.

Les Remparts d'Aigues-Mortes.

There are two Roman subjects, one showing the Forum and the other the Colosseum through the Arch of Titus. The Venice poster by George Dorival is an acquisition to be marked on the calendar with a red letter.

Write for the full list, "Affiches Illustrées."

Size: 30 x 42 inches. 20 fr. ea. (a few 10 fr.).

Chemins de Fer P. L. M., Tourisme et Publicité, 20 Boul. Diderot, Paris.

The Chemin de Fer de Paris à Orléans and the Chemins de Fer de l'Etat produce the usual chateau subjects, the following miscellaneous posters being preferable:

Paris à Orléans.

Château de Blois (showing the Francis I staircase).

Château d'Amboise.

Avignon. (Palace of the Popes.)

De l'Etat.

Le Mont Saint-Michel.

Le Porte de Parthenay.

Le Rue aux Fèvres.

Le Châteaux d'O, Combours, Tourlaville (3 posters).

Size: 29 x 34 inches. 4 fr. ea.

Service de la Publicité des Chemins de Fer de l'Etat, 20 Rue de Rome, Paris, France.

Chemin de Fer de Paris à Orléans, Exploitation, 1 Place Valhubert, Paris, France.

Pictorial posters of the London and North-Eastern Railway include:

Double-Royal.

Malines Cathedral. An excellent subject in black and white for architectural details.

Melrose Abbey as plundered by Henry VIII.

Norwich Cathedral, for flying buttresses.

Quad Royal.

Ely Cathedral.

York Cathedral and part of the old Roman Wall.

For a full list see the folder, "Pictorial Posters," published by the company.

Size: Double-Royal, 25 x 40 inches, 1s. 9d. ea. Quad Royal, 50 x 40 inches, 3s. ea.

Adv. Mgr., L. N. E. Railroad, 26 Pancras Road, London, N. W. 1.

The London, Midland, and Scottish Railroad's series on British industries should be double starred, particularly because of the discrepancy which exists between the amount of illustrative material available for medieval and that for modern history. The four large quad-royal posters on the essential British industries of coal, iron, and steel, ship-building, and cotton will be worn to shreds in connection with the Industrial Revolution and modern industrial problems.

The Carlisle poster mentioned above is also published by the same company.

A full list is given in "Artistic Posters by Eminent Artists," supplied on demand.

Size: Double-royal, 2s. for 6; 3s. 9d. for 12; 5s. for over 12. Quad royal, 2s. 6d.

Passenger Commercial Superintendent's Office, L. M. S. Railway, Euston Station, London, N. W. 1.

A useful series in Modern history is the set of colored British Empire posters in honor of the colonial possessions of the British Empire, used during the Wembley Exhibition, including Hong-Kong, South Africa, New Zealand, etc.

Size: 3 x 4 feet. 2s. 6d. ea., or 12s. 6d. the set of 7.

The Challenge, Books and Pictures, Ltd., 7A Church Street, Kensington, London, W. 8.

Also produced in connection with the British Empire Exhibition is the excellent subject procurable from "The Challenge," showing in progression Cabot, Drake, Raleigh, William Penn, and other British empire builders, down to Disraeli and Kitchener of the present.

A limited number of war posters which are fast disappearing, by such war-time artists as Henri Royer, S. L. Jonas, Georges Scott, et al., are still procurable from Brentano's of Paris. Those for the Crédit Lyonnais, Société Marseillaise, etc., already possess considerable curio value which increases almost hour by hour.

Size: 31 x 47 inches. 20 fr. ea.

Brentano's, Librairies-Commissionnaires, 37 Avenue de l'Opera, Paris.

For convenience, the English posters and many of the French, can be obtained from the central Challenge shop, Books and Pictures, near the British Museum, or 7A Church Street, Kensington, London, W. 8.

Posters of peasants in characteristic dress may be multiplied without limit from the large variety produced by nearly all the European railroad companies as a result of the picturesque opportunities offered the poster designer. There are a few, however, from among the number which have a strict application to class work, particularly the fine set from the Chemins de Fer d'Alsace et de Lorraine, including three by Hansi in his chatty, characteristic "doll's house" style. These are:

Colmar.

Obernai: La Procession de Sainte Odile.

Ribeauville.

The coloring is excellent as posters go, and the series, in view of the strategic importance of the two French provinces, will be found exceedingly useful. Others from the same company include views of Strassburg Cathedral and Metz.

An additional peasant poster which may be used effectively is "L'Alsace. La Montagne," by the same company.

Size: 29 x 34 inches. Chemins de Fer d'Alsace et de Lorraine, Publicité, 5 Rue de Florence, Paris, France.

The best posters may be covered with a thin coat of varnish which preserves the colors and adds to the life of the poster many times.

IV Stereographs

The stereograph has not been utilized in proportion to its value, because the method of duplication has been so expensive as to be almost prohibitive, and where boxes of views are circulated or placed

on a table for sporadic reference there is a loss of unified attention and conception which alone can make such material function as a vital part of class instruction.

The lantern slide, useful as it is, does not give the same impression of actual physical presence upon the scene as the stereograph, but it has been generally preferred, as the attention of the class is centered upon one subject at the same time. Where sets of selected stereographs, as on Prehistoric Man, the French Revolution, the Boxer Rebellion, etc., are purchased in quantities enough to supply each member with a certain assortment of views and a stereoscope, enabling discussion and investigation to proceed logically, methodically, and intensively, an effect is secured like nothing else in the entire field of Visual Education material.

When a full outfit of selected stereographs cannot be purchased in quantities sufficient to supply each member of the class with a stereoscope and a series of views the next best method is to provide as many sets as there are rows. Here the first stereograph in order is placed in the stereoscope by the front pupil in each row who is instructed to release each view only when the number is called by the teacher. While this view is being passed down the aisle the members of the class who are not engaged in examining it are discussing significant details, writing up their notes, or listening to the explanation of the teacher. When the stereograph has gone the length of the aisle it is taken out of the stereoscope by the last pupil who retains it, and the empty instrument passed back to the front of the row, where the same process is repeated with the next view in order.

It is well known that the stereograph produces a sense of reality equalled by no other photographic medium, not excluding the motion picture, which has made numerous unsuccessful attempts to imitate its third dimension features. The mind searches out every corner of the picture and explores every by-path with a spontaneity that comes only with an impression of actual physical presence, and approaches as nearly as anything can to the ideal of actually realizing history.

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Panama Canal	100
Athens, Greek Sculpture and Architecture	64
Rome	93
London	57
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Stereoscopes, \$1.75.

Keystone View Company, Meadville, Pa.

V

Slides and Still-Films

The value of the slide over the motion picture is its stationary feature, which enables the details to be noted intently and deliberately, and while the slide loses in animation, it gains in permanence over the flitting, evanescent motion picture by its longer period of exposure.

Motion pictures have made various unsuccessful efforts to provide a non-inflammable medium cheap enough to permit the stopping of the film for the intensive study of significant features, but as there are one thousand feet in one reel of film, the expense for ordinary use has been found to be prohibitive.

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(To be continued in the February number)

Book Reviews

EDITED BY PROFESSOR HARRY J. CARMAN, COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY

History of the United States (New Edition). By Emerson David Fite. Henry Holt and Company, New York, 1926. 598 pp.

The Story of Our Country. By Ruth and Willis Mason West. Allyn and Bacon, New York, 1926. 518 pp.

Professor Fite has revised a work originally published for use in secondary schools in 1916, and includes in his new edition recent happenings such as debt funding arrangements and the gestures of the United States toward entry into the World Court. The book contains numerous illustrations and appropriate maps. As in preceding editions, the author presents the history of the United States in a clear and concise manner. No unmeasured glorification of the country mars the orderly, smooth presentation of chronological facts, which contain no more comments by the author than are necessary for literary unity and a coherent continuity. Although the treatment is largely political, the promptings of economic and social factors are plainly shown. One of the avowed endeavors of the book is to introduce the student to present-day conditions and problems, and for this purpose the space for different periods is splendidly apportioned. Matters which shaped slightly the mould of the present are rightly put in a reduced perspective to more important determinants. A short outline of the events and movements to follow precedes each chapter for the convenience of the student in studying the details in their relation to an entire phase. At the end of each chapter is a brief bibliography of authoritative material for further reading; a list of special topics with references which cover the subjects; illustrative material of a literary nature; and suggestive ques-

tions intended to stress matters of importance in the foregoing chapter. An appendix contains the Declaration of Independence and the Constitution.

The Story of Our Country, as the authors say in the preface, "is an elementary textbook" of United States history. It is doubtful if the book would be useful in classes beyond those of the grade schools. The material is presented in a manner to interest the immature mind, without too strenuously exercising the mental faculties. An effort is made by the book, however, to shift the emphasis from wars and adventurous exploits to the more prosaic aspects of the country's development in conformity with the recent tendencies of scholarly treatment. In the shifting of emphasis, the authors endeavor to lose none of the romance and questionable glamour which formerly was imparted to more exciting events, but merely to carry the turbulent charm of stirring incidents to the social, economic and political phases of life as the colonies, and later the nation, expanded across the continent. In the 518 pages there are 410 illustrations, maps, charts and facsimiles of various sizes and natures. The photographs are as diverse as those of Julia Ward Howe, Booker T. Washington, Buffalo Bill and Ferdinand Foch, and the illustrations include as varied subjects as a section of the Parthenon Frieze, a Pine Tree Shilling and a Civil War Balloon. Particularly commendable is the brief opening outline of world history prior to America's discovery, which serves to introduce the recital of this country's progress and properly place it as only a portion of the vast story of mankind.

Columbia University.

SAMUEL MCKEE, JR.

A History of Economic Progress in the United States. By Walter W. Jennings. New York, Thomas Y. Crowell Co., 1926. x, 819 pp.

Historians have found in the economic progress of the United States a fertile field of investigation. The recent widespread interest in economic history as an independent study in the curricula of American schools and colleges has resulted in the writing of scores of textbooks designed primarily for classroom use. These texts contribute little, if anything, toward a better understanding of the underlying forces of economic evolution. Moreover, their emphasis on economic determinism in its crudest form is annoying. Professor Jennings in his *History of Economic Progress in the United States*, at least, recognizes the labyrinth into which the economic historian not infrequently leads us. His attempt to guide us out of this labyrinth is not, however, altogether successful. This is partly due to the fact that the author has tried to write a book—as he candidly admits in the preface—"with a view to the needs of all colleges...." to "the requirements of colleges with small libraries and of large colleges and universities with inadequate library facilities...." The book, too, has been written in a style which, it is hoped, will interest the business man and the general reader." Obviously, such a task is well-nigh impossible.

The book is divided into five parts: 1, *The Colonial Period*; 2, *Winning of Political and Commercial Independence*; 3, *Expansion*; 4, *War and Democracy*; 5, *The Twentieth Century*. Separate chapters in each section are devoted to population, agriculture, manufactures, commerce, and public finance. Beginning with section 3—*Expansion, 1816-1860*—the tariff and the labor problem are treated in separate chapters. The excessive use of dates and figures, particularly in the second half of the book, is confusing.

The inclusion of selections from original sources is a distinctive feature of the book. The indexing is excellent and the general bibliography well chosen.

FELIX FLUGEL.

University of California.

British History for American Students. By W. T. Laprade. The Macmillan Company, New York, 1926. xvii, 913 pp.

This is a textbook, beginning with the Normans on the Continent and the Anglo-Saxons in England, and reaching down to the present day. Probably its most distinctive feature is its relative leisureliness and fairness. Unlike most textbooks, it does not greatly incline toward arbitrary and final statement. It is not full of "right answers." It is admittedly compact, but in its nine hundred pages there is much more of qualification and caution against too confident and summary assertion than is usual in a manual. It contains a good many quotations from real secondary authorities and these are often on the side of common sense, if admittedly hesitant, interpretation. The author takes advantage of the convenient division of British history for American students: the period before Colonial expansion; that between Colonial expansion and the American Revolution; and that between the Revolution and today. He finds that it provides a good division as well for political, social, and economic history. The unity and continuity which he obtains are the result of some omissions justified by his audience, but it is notable how much contributing material of all kinds he has been able to incorporate. The chapter bibliographies are very good and quite short. There are twenty-eight maps, of which those in black and white are more successful than their colored rivals, in spite of their relatively greater line complexity. Each chapter is followed by a geographical reference to atlases. The index is extensive and good.

The reader will be a little disappointed with the attention paid before 1600 to the personal element in British History, which even in days of slow communications was distinctly strong and has since remained peculiarly so. This is partly because of limitations of space, and after

1600 the author has indulged himself a little more in this direction. One of the topics most strongly stressed and best treated in the first two parts is the constitutional and institutional history, so that the book will be valuable to students who are seeking a modest account of that portion of the background of the United States. Social and economic history are interwoven with the central theme in satisfying proportions and the history of thought is not ignored. Altogether the book is a solid achievement.

J. B. BRENNER.

Columbia University.

Church and State in Mexico, 1822-1857. By Wilfrid Hardy Calcott. Duke University Press, Durham, N. C., 1926. 357 pp. \$4.00.

This volume appears at a propitious time and a careful reading of its pages will repay one who wishes to understand in a measure the present situation in Mexico. The story is one of the time-honored struggles between Church and State with one of our neighbors for the background. The author has thoroughly exploited that part of the García collection at the University of Texas, known as the Gómez Farías papers. This man, Valentín Gómez Farías, a liberal, about whom centered many of the events given, will be found of much interest to readers in the United States. He was a close associate of Santa Anna and in his correspondence are found many traces of that enigmatic character. An excellent portrayal of Santa Anna is given, and upon his actions a great deal of light is shed, to the extent that one feels more than ever an instinctive admiration for his politico-diplomatic ingenuity.

The book contains twelve chapters, constituting 317 pages. In chapter I, the historical background of the picture is outlined, while chapter II covers the period of revolt from Spain. The following chapters develop chronologically the rise and spread of the liberal and conservative groups with the shadow of the Church ever in the background dominating the social, economic and political life of Mexico. Ever across this picture flit Santa Anna and his associate, Gómez Farías. Chapter VIII deals with conditions in Mexico during the war with the United States and constitutes, together with chapters III and XI, one of the best chapters in the work. The latter chapter on the constitutional convention and chapter XII on the reception of the constitution, cover one of the most important periods in Mexican history and furnish excellent reasons why a second volume should follow, continuing the political and religious struggle to the present day through the equally famous constitution of 1917. This subsequent volume, Dr. Calcott is at present working on.

The timeliness of this work should make its sale wide and necessitate a second edition, wherein many changes and corrections may be made. The bibliography does not contain references to all material cited in the foot-notes, particularly is this true of references to periodicals, as, for example, the *Southern Quarterly Review*, the *American Review*, etc. One noticeable slip is the citing of Polk's *Diary* in the classification of secondary works. Appendix B might prove of greater value if dates were attached. The index is scant and contains arbitrarily chosen material with here and there wrong page references, incomplete citations, and unsatisfactory cross references. In the body of the work there is not always uniformity in arrangement of, and interpolations in, quotations. There are some typographical errors on pages 50, 63, 74, 106. An unintentional misuse of the term *Ibid.* occurs in note 13, page 205. There appears to be a mistake in the date 1853 on pages 208 and 215. In chapter I, some may raise a question as to the native ownership of land in Mexico before the coming of the Spaniards (p. 22), and as to the date given for the promulgation of the New Laws (p. 10). Perhaps in view of recent research too much reliance has been placed upon Bancroft, Arranzola and others, particularly in the earlier chapters.

But all such errors aside, this volume will be found instructive, if not entertaining, to all those interested in the general relations of Church and State. And to those

particular students of Mexican history, it will be found indispensable and will undoubtedly rank as a distinct and welcome contribution in their field of study. It is to be hoped that further and similar special studies of equal value will appear for the other states of Hispanic America.

A. CURTIS WILGUS.

University of South Carolina.

The Development of Education in Texas. By Frederick Eby. Macmillan Company, New York, 1925. xv, 354 pp.

In estimating the quality of Professor Eby's book on the development of education in Texas, it is essential that we keep in mind the purpose for which it has been written. It is intended to serve Texas students of education as an introduction to the present problems of education in that state and in the United States in general and to make these students more intelligent and more active factors in bringing about educational progress. It is from the viewpoint, then, of its professional purpose and of the author's success in achieving that purpose that the book is to be judged, as well as from the viewpoint of historical method.

It must be evident to the reader of the book that Professor Eby has been concerned not only with describing the condition of education at any given period of the history of Texas and with showing the changes and the improvements which have taken place, but also with explaining the interdependence of education with the social, economic, political, and religious forces by which it was conditioned. Education in Texas, as it is, is shown in its causal relationships with education in Texas as it was. The acute underpopulation and severe land poverty of the early days, which mark Texas as of the frontier and of the West; the plantation economy and slave labor and repugnance to free schools, which mark Texas as of the South; the high endeavor and the harsh bigotry of clashing religious denominations; the economic losses of the Civil War and the waste and political usurpation of the Radical Reconstruction régime; the new Texas, with its energetic and thriving towns and cities and its wealth in oil, in commerce, and in agricultural products;—all these factors are shown as in some way affecting the educational conditions of the State and as contributing in some way to all that is good and all that is unsatisfactory in the present educational situation.

It is probable that Professor Eby's book makes his Texas students rather proud of their state as they read of the high endeavor of the men and women who have battled against hard odds for educational improvement, and that is as it should be. At the same time, it must make them cognizant of the existing educational deficiencies of Texas. Where those deficiencies are the result of stupid holdovers from a day that has passed, as many of them clearly are, the narrative should be immensely informing both as to fact and as to cause. Where the deficiencies represent difficult problems of social engineering, the story has at least laid them bare and prompted serious and open-minded thought about them. Accordingly, one may say that from the standpoint of its professional purpose, the book has been well done.

The story of the development of education in Texas, which is a complicated one, has been told with commendable clearness and conciseness. It is largely built upon source materials and has preserved a satisfactory balance between attention to local and personal detail and to larger social movements and controlling principles.

One appreciates, of course, Professor Eby's purpose in beginning his history of education in Texas with a rapid, and one ought to say good, survey of the whole history of Western education from the Greeks to the present time, and many of the developments which he describes in Texas are seen to have their counterpart in the account of the evolution of educational organization and practices at large. However, this survey, which comprises one-sixth of the book, is not assimilated in any clear or definite way with the part which deals with Texas, and one must wonder just what utility the student reader finds in it for

better understanding the Texas development. The survey would have been improved if it had been more selective and if the bearing of its parts upon Texas conditions had been specifically shown by either forward or backward reference.

EDWARD H. REISNER.

Teachers College, Columbia University.

American History for Grammar Schools. By Marguerite Dickson. Macmillan Company, New York, 1926. 655 pp.

This well-known grammar school text has been brought up to date by numerous changes and by the additional chapters on the World War and post-war problems. The new material is written in an unbiased fashion and with a calm restraint. As a teaching instrument, the book presents many noteworthy features. Each chapter constitutes a unit and is followed by a concise summary, additional reading references, questions and notebook exercises. Abundant opportunity is given for self-expression, thus obviating the danger of making the study of history a "pouring in" process. There is a wealth of illustrations and a considerable number of map studies which clarify social, economic, and political problems as well as military and territorial. The period after the Civil War is one of the best written portions of the book. There are chapters on the New South, the Industrial Revolution, and Big Business. The old method of arranging content according to the administrations of the presidents has been abandoned in favor of the more progressive topic-problem method. The book in its present form is, in the opinion of the reviewer, one of the most up-to-date of the many grammar school texts.

IRA SHIMBERG.

New Utrecht High School,
Brooklyn, N. Y.

STORY OF OUR CIVILIZATION

By H. A. GUERBER

A record, simply told in continuous narrative, of the great things done in all ages and by all countries, which have influenced American progress, make this an appealing text for the European Backgrounds course. Paragraphs in each chapter, entitled "Our Debt" are constant reminders of our heritage from other peoples.

HENRY HOLT AND COMPANY

1 Park Ave.
New York

6 Park St.
Boston

2451 Prairie Ave.
Chicago

149 New Montgomery St.
San Francisco

International Relations. By Raymond Leslie Buell. Henry Holt and Co., N. Y., 1925. xiii, 768 pp.

If the war has done nothing else, it has created among the American public an interest in books dealing with the problems of international relations, and the causes of international conflicts. This book is an attempt to meet and satisfy this demand.

The book is divided into three sections. The first part lays the basis for the problem through a study of nationalism in its many manifestations. With this foundation, the author devotes the next section to a discussion of imperialism, its problems and prospects. From this subject the transition to a treatment of the settlement of international disputes follows inevitably. Recognizing the impossibility of treating exhaustively so large a field, the author has wisely appended a full and carefully selected bibliography. In addition, to allay criticism concerning the facts and conclusions regarding such contentious subjects, the book is plentifully supplied with references to the sources used in compiling the work. With such treatment the most carping critic is rendered silent, but the inclusion of material under one section, and exclusion from another, may be criticized as arbitrary or ambiguous. But for purposes of treatment, it would be impossible to deal with each problem separately wherever it might arise. Bearing this in mind, most of this difficulty is seen to vanish, or to be due to technical difficulties impossible to overcome.

The work itself is a serious attempt to set before the thinking and serious-minded student of international affairs the problems of the new world created but left unsolved by the World War. In this attempt the work is a suggestive piece of writing, and valuable as a guide and work of reference.

E. B. HEWES.

Columbia University.

The Psychology of Social Institutions. By Charles Hubbard Judd. The Macmillan Company, New York, 1926. ix, 346 pp.

Not so many years ago the old line social psychologist was abroad in the land. Today we remember him mainly for his sins. We remember mainly his shallow and shadowy reference to concrete fact, his severely simple and highly atomistic conception of human nature, and his thin generalizations regarding all the major problems of sociology and history. We are likely to ignore, and some of us are even inclined to deny, what in the end will probably be counted his supreme virtue. Through thick and thin he held that a good psychology will have things to say that are of interest to the social scientist. Of course, he did not recognize that this was quite as much a plea for the socialization of psychology as for the psychologization of sociology and history.

Today a new group of social psychologists who do recognize this are beginning to publish. They feel that the known facts concerning human behavior, fragmentary as they are, can help us to understand the workings of social institutions; and, on the other hand, they feel that the study of social institutions cannot help but enlarge our knowledge of the single human being. Their work is both more modest and more useful than that of their predecessors. It is barren of formulae of universal scope and reference, but it does trace specific interconnections and interdependences between the feelings, thoughts, and actions of the individual and the objective arrangements of social institutions.

To the reviewer, Professor Judd's book presents a very attractive view of the possibilities of this approach. There is little in it that is all ready-made for use by the historian, but there is much that can help him to envisage his problems more intelligently. The discussion centers around such topics as the alphabet, the use of numbers and of tools, language, the development of habits and institutions of precision and of punctuality, and, in the later chapters, music, graphic art, religion, science, and government. The aim in each case is to show how the existence of these institutions tends both to develop the

possibilities of human nature and to canalize the manner of its expression. Taken as a whole, the book constitutes a very novel and stimulating synthesis.

The later chapters, and especially those on art and religion, seem less satisfactory than the earlier ones. In them Professor Judd is hampered by a too narrow view of the emotions, which are regarded as too subjective and personal to link individuals together satisfactorily. This position seems to the reviewer rather a tenet of dogmatic psychology than a conclusion drawn from the workings of social institutions. Even this inadequacy, however, illustrates the truth of Professor Judd's general position. Where the psychology is false or imperfect, the social analysis also suffers.

JOHN STORCK.

Columbia University.

The Practice of Municipal Administration. By Lent D. Upson. The Century Company, New York, 1926. x, 588 pp.

Introduction to the Study of Public Administration. By Leonard D. White. Macmillan Company, New York, 1926. xiii, 495 pp.

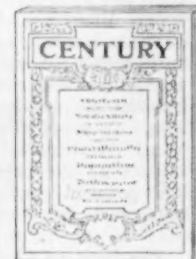
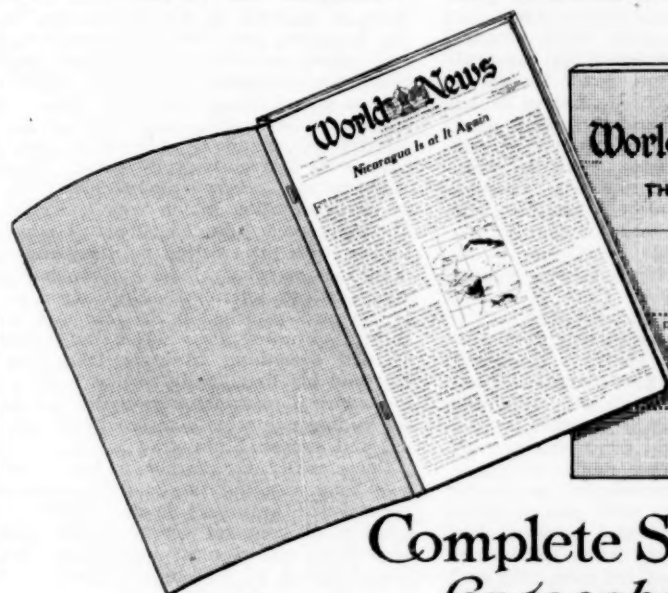
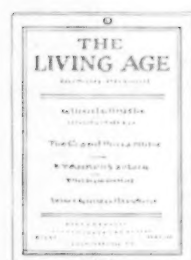
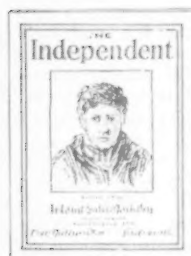
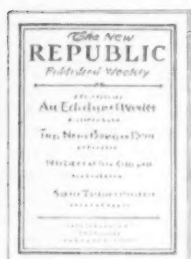
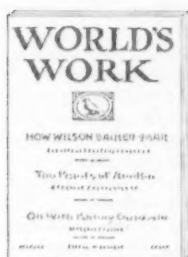
State Government in the United States. (Revised Edition.) By Arthur N. Holcombe. Macmillan Company, New York, 1926. 649 pp.

These three excellent volumes bear high tribute to the progress which is being made in the science of administration. Dr. Upson, Director of the Detroit Bureau of Municipal Research, one of the finest in the country, is amply qualified for the large task which he essays. On every page his wide knowledge and practical understanding of the problems with which he deals is apparent. The writer not merely treats authoritatively the methods of administration, but he is as well thoroughly conversant with the literature of his subject. If any criticism is in order it must relate to the apportionment of space and the neglect of the broader aspects and implications of the subject. The thirty-one chapters have practically equal length and whole chapters are devoted to such subjects as sewerage, water, lighting, engineering, street paving. There is no particular grouping of the chapters. For college classes there is a little too much hewing at the trees and too few glimpses of the growing forest of municipal activities and the countryside in which it is situated. Professor White's book, as we would expect, has none of these merely pedagogic defects. Its limitations are self-imposed. It is confined largely to two topics: overhead organization and personnel. This restricts the term "administration" to rather more narrowly than is generally accepted. But within these restrictions, the book is thorough and penetrating. There is a genuine effort to get to the heart of a difficult subject in the two chapters on "Integration" and the "Limits of Integration." The second half of the volume, dealing with the personnel problem, is well thought out. The book is rounded out with two chapters on control, the one on judicial control being particularly noteworthy. College teachers will find that the long-felt want of a book on the activities of our national and state governments is still unfilled. Professor Holcombe indicates that the textbooks in state government are making some bid for that field, but in general administration is but a minor part of their total content. His standard text, which is now given a general though not complete overhauling, with the aid of Professor Roger Wells, is particularly noteworthy for its well proportioned seventy-five-page chapter on "Administration."

All three of these books are readable; the last is attractively written. All three are vivid because of their abundance of concrete illustration. The legal side of government, the structural side, the political side, have all received their due emphasis, perhaps in turn were over-emphasized. The importance of the activities of the government has long been acknowledged. The textbook equipment for bringing these before college students is rapidly being supplied.

JOSEPH D. MCGOLDRICK.

Columbia University.



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Note Books

Mississippi Steamboatin'. A History of Steamboating on the Mississippi and Its Tributaries (Henry Holt and Company, New York, 1926, pp. xiv, 342) by Herbert Quick and Edward Quick, contains a wealth of information on the place of the "Father of Waters" in American history, especially during the period prior to the Civil War. For the student of history the volume is distinctly worth while, especially Chapter VIII, entitled "Some Dry Statistics," which assembles many facts on such questions as ownership and operation of river craft, the number of boats built for use on the western waters, the place the cost of construction, passenger and freight rates, and social life aboard the river boats. The other chapters furnish interesting accounts of river banditry, the early settlements along the western waters, land deals, fur trade, Indian troubles, the river pilot, steamboat racing, the Mississippi during the Civil War, and steamboat disasters. A concluding chapter gives a brief résumé of mid-West river traffic today and a suggestion as to the possibilities of the future. A useful bibliography is appended. The general reader, as well as the more serious student, will profit by reading this volume.

Teachers of Geography in Junior High Schools will do well to examine *Nations as Neighbors* (The Macmillan Company, New York, 1925, xii, 579 pp.) by Leonard O. Packard and Charles P. Sinnott. In preparing this excellent text on economic geography, the authors have kept four main objectives in mind. In the first place, they have assumed that in this day and age no nation is absolutely economically independent, but that each is more or less dependent on other parts of the world for raw materials, agricultural products, and manufactured goods. Secondly, they have attempted to show the correlation of history and geography "in order that pupils may gain a better understanding of the background of our national and international problems." Thirdly, they have endeavored to so state and arrange the contents of the book that each pupil will be mentally aroused and will think about the problems raised. Finally, they have sought to make the book more worth while as a teaching tool by including a great wealth of first-rate illustrative material such as pictures, maps, charts, diagrams, graphs, and statistical tables. Part I, "Introduction," deals with the interdependence of nations and the influence of natural conditions on man's life. Part II, which contains about two hundred pages, discusses the economic life of the United States. Part III gives about the same amount of space to Europe and the European colonies as is given to the United States. The two chapters of Part IV are devoted to China and Japan, and the five chapters of Part V to Latin America. An appendix gives valuable source material on national areas and population, coal and iron ore production, agriculture, manufacturing, railroads and shipping, urban growth and race distribution. The questions and suggested problems and exercises at the end of each chapter are, on the whole, very well chosen. The book sets a high standard for texts of its kind.

The new and revised edition of Charles Warren's *The Supreme Court in United States History* (Little, Brown and Company, Boston, 1926, Vol. I, xiv, 814 pp.; Vol. II, x, 812 pp.) does not differ in any great degree from the first edition, which was awarded the Pulitzer Prize for the best book of 1922 on the history of the United States. The author has, however, made certain corrections and a few additions to the text. The illustrative notes at the end of many chapters have also been somewhat enlarged and the appendix, which lists the persons nominated as Chief Justice and Associate Justice of the Supreme Court of the United States, has been brought down to date. The volume will undoubtedly long stand as one of the most serviceable of those concerning the history of the highest court of the land.

There is a great deal of interesting and significant material collected in C. B. Chase's *The Young Voltaire* (Longmans, Green, New York, 1926, ix, 253 pp. \$3.00) and a very reasonable presentation of its thesis, the influence upon Voltaire of his twenty-seven months in England. It is unfortunate that the style and composition are often not a little categorical and formal, for when the author forgets to be doctoral he gains in charm without much sacrifice of emphasis. He has worked up and interpreted as highly significant an incident in Voltaire's life to which few French and only two English commentators have paid serious attention. His argument is that, before the Rohan affair and its shattering revelation of Voltaire's insecure position in French society, he was pretty much the bourgeois who had climbed the ladder of fame at a very rapid pace because he could criticize his world wittingly and daringly, but without offending the fundamental canons of contemporary good taste. Briefly, he was the supreme fashionable critic without having decided what alternatives might be offered to the customs and institutions he destructively dissected. England gave him perspective and a very sturdy criterion. It was "a symbol of the revolution which was occurring within Voltaire." He discovered "English liberty," which was really satisfaction with the existing political and economic conditions, rendered conspicuous to a Frenchman by good-natured, even careless, tolerance. He discovered Newtonianism and Deism and absorbed both. He met the best society and carefully studied the whole national edifice. He may have learned something in style from Swift. He began in England his first really serious writing and he went back to France a reformer who could and did win a vast popular audience for his homilies by giving them a coating of wit and superb literary style.

Occasionally the author makes a little source material go a long way, but the available material is scanty and in general the argument is supported by the evidence. A number of common errors about Voltaire are carefully considered and a most interesting chapter is devoted to interpretation of Voltaire's attitude to Shakespeare. Students of the eighteenth century in France and England will find much to attract them in this book.—J. B. B.

Students of intellectual and educational history of the United States are deeply indebted to Dr. Allen Oscar Hansen for his little volume entitled *Liberalism and American Education in the Eighteenth Century* (The Macmillan Company, New York, 1926, xxv, 317 pp.). The book which, as the author says, is both a collection and an exposition of the sources, shows how the dominant ideas of the eighteenth century—(1) indefinite perfectibility of man and institutions; (2) man, the determiner of lines of progress; (3) flexible institutions necessary for human progress; (4) existence of institutions to further progress, and (5) education the principal means of progress—influenced American life and education. The effect of these was best shown by the influence they had on the various plans for a national system of education in the United States which were advanced during the early years of the Republic. Among the plans were those by Benjamin Rush, Robert Coram, James Sullivan, Du Pont de Nemours, Noah Webster, Nathaniel Chapman, Samuel Knox and Samuel Smith, the last two being submitted through the efforts of the American Philosophical Society. All of the material dealing with the subject was heretofore scattered and difficult of access. It is here gathered together in convenient form, interpreted and summarized. The fact that the reader may not always agree with the author's conclusion in no way subtracts from the service he has rendered.

The Introduction to the American Official Sources for the Economic and Social History of the World War (Yale University Press, New Haven, 1926, xlvii, 532 pp.), compiled by Waldo G. Leland and Newton D. Mereness, constitutes the first volume in the American series of that monumental work on the World War which is going forward under the general editorship of Professor James T.

Shotwell, Director of the Division of Economics and History of the Carnegie Endowment for International Peace. It presents a summary of the records and official publications of the various branches and offices of the Federal Government, as well as the State war history collections from the declaration of war in 1917 to the completion of demobilization in 1920. The volume, as the compilers point out in their prefatory note, is in no sense a bibliography of the war. Even so, it is of inestimable value to the student who desires to get at the source materials dealing with the social and economic aspects of the war. It is fortunate that the volume is well indexed.

Nothing strikingly new is revealed in the two volumes of *Letters of Queen Victoria, 1862-1878* (Longmans, Green & Company, New York, 1926. Vol. I, xxv, 637 pp.; Vol. II, xiii, 690 pp.). Authorized by royal authority, edited by George Earle Buckle, beautifully illustrated and printed, these two substantial tomes present a self-portrait of Victoria from the year 1861, when the Prince Consort died, to 1878. Perhaps more than anything else, the reader is impressed with the self-pity which the bereaved Queen constantly heaped upon herself. No one can read these letters and diary extracts without realizing that the untimely death of her husband marked the end of her domestic happiness. Henceforth she seemed to be veiled in a shroud of sorrow. She repeatedly complains of her "shattered nerves," and makes frequent reference to her "greatest sorrow." Or again, we find her describing herself as the "poor wretched Queen," or the "poor, nervous, shaken Queen." At the same time, however, one is impressed with the fact that despite her sorrow she was an extremely busy person. She gave frequent audiences, carried on a bulky correspondence, and kept in close touch with the administration, and with the trend of national affairs. Indeed, one wonders how she managed with a frayed nervous system to accomplish as much as she did. In addition to giving a portraiture of the Queen, these volumes furnish interesting and often intimate glimpses of Disraeli, Gladstone and other distinguished personages of the day.

Those interested in the relations of industry and labor will profit from reading Arthur E. Sufferin's compact volume entitled *The Coal Miners' Struggle for Industrial Status—A Study of the Evolution of Organized Relations and Industrial Principles in the Coal Industry* (The Macmillan Company, New York, 1926. xviii, 462 pp.). Prepared under the auspices of the Institute of Economics, the book deals primarily with three important problems: (1) the evolution in the American coal industry of the latest form of collective bargaining; namely, negotiations between official representatives of associations of workers and owners; (2) the administrative machinery that has been developed for the making and enforcing of agreements; and (3) an analysis of the general principles and working rules which have come to govern the relations of operators and miners. In discussing these problems, the author judiciously traces the history of collective bargaining in the coal industry. In so doing he throws a flood of light on such specific questions as how are the miners and operators organized and what are the functions of their organizations; how is the joint conference organized, what are the principles upon which it is founded, and what is the procedure in making agreements; what methods are used for the enforcement of agreements and for the adjustment of disputes which arise under them; what is the organization and procedure in connection with employee representation plans and in what respect do they differ from the dominant form of collective bargaining; what principles and rules are incorporated in the agreements between employers and employees; what does an examination of the decisions of disputes show as to the application of the principles agreed upon; and, finally, what problems are involved in the further extension of collective bargaining to the coal industry. The volume in every sense is a real contribution to the science of industrial

relations. Appendices include the 1898 basic agreement or contract between the operators of the central competitive coal field and the United Mine Workers of America, membership tables of the United Mine Workers in 1923, together with copies of rules of order of work and stoppages. A bibliography is also appended.

Students of economics, social history and domestic science will find many valuable suggestions in the text *Food Buying and Our Markets* (M. Barrows & Company, Boston, 1925. viii, 321 pp.), by Day Monroe and Lenore Monroe Stratton. Roughly, half the volume is devoted to the problem of marketing and the other half to staple food products. A brief outline of a chapter from each half will suffice to indicate the character of the volume. Chapter XII, for instance, deals with the chain store and the "Cash and Carry System." Here we have discussed such topics as the growth of the chain store movement, how chain stores may reduce prices, examples of savings through chain store purchasing, etc. Chapter XXV, to select from the second half of the book, is entitled "Eggs." Here the reader is told how to judge eggs for quality, the effect of cold storage on eggs, and how eggs are graded and marketed. Each chapter is equipped with questions for investigation and discussion, and with brief bibliographical statements.

Those who desire to know more about a section of the United States which is undergoing a remarkable transformation will not fail to read *The Advancing South. Stories of Progress and Reaction* (Doubleday, Page and Company, New York, 1926. xviii, 319 pp.) by Edwin Mims. After pointing out the enormity of the task of those who would build a new social economic structure where once had stood a civilization dominated by proud Bourbons, the author describes the new South—the South of the last fifty years. This he does by tracing the endeavors of those men and women who have labored for the promotion of southern agriculture, industry, journalism, education, and better race relations. Thus Walter Hines Page, the outstanding figure in the intellectual renaissance of the South, is followed by chapters on agriculture and industry in which we see moving such personages as Seaman A. Knapp, R. S. Walker, D. A. Tompkins, George Gordon Crawford and others. Two chapters are devoted to higher education—to the work of such men as Henderson, Branson, Knight, and others of the University of North Carolina. Then follow the journalists and the literary folks—Johnson, Caldwell, Latham, O. Henry, Ellen Glasgow, Johnston, Cabell, Heyward and the Harises. A chapter is also devoted to the part women had in the transforming process. Here we get intimate glimpses of the splendid services of Julia Collier Harris, Charles Williams, Mary Sanders, Nell Battle Lewis and Frances Newman, not to mention others. Finally, under the title "The Ebbing Tide of Colour," Professor Mims traces the efforts of a few of those who have labored for better relations between the whites and the blacks. Readers, both North and South, may well ponder over the pages of this thoughtful and inspiring volume.

The New Physical Geography (The Macmillan Company, New York, 1926. xi, 689 pp.), by Ralph S. Tarr and O. D. von Engeln, is a revision of Professor Tarr's book of the same title, which was first published in 1903. The earlier book, however, has been so completely revised that it is virtually a new work. This was in large measure necessitated because of the many contributions to the science of physical geography which have appeared in the twenty years. The illustrative material and the teaching aids at the end of each chapter have likewise been overhauled. Those familiar with the original work will find the revised edition even more serviceable than its predecessor.

The Clarendon Press have published under the editorship of J. Turrel *A Select Source-Book of British History*

(Oxford University Press: American Branch, New York, 1926, 320 pp. \$1.00), which is almost a model for its kind. It is designed to illustrate "life, laws, and letters," but the emphasis is on "life." Teachers of British history in schools and high schools should welcome the volume. They are certain to find light thrown into dark and even unknown corners in their own knowledge, and their pupils will get vivid contemporary pictures of history which too often is to them a series of phrases fitted magically into a framework of royal reigns.—J. B. B.

The Cambridge University Press have published *A Bibliography of Sir Adolphus William Ward: 1837-1924; with a Memoir by T. F. Tout* (Macmillan, New York, 1926, xxxiv, 99 pp.). This most impressive record of the life of a great scholar in the fields of history and literature is, by his own wish, a substitute for a formal bibliography. It is reminiscent of Sir Christopher Wren's epitaph. Both the Memoir and the Bibliography (by A. T. Bartholomew) are labors of love. Unfortunately, there is no index.—J. B. B.

Recent Happenings in the Social Studies

BY COMMITTEE ON CURRENT INFORMATION

W. G. Kimmel, *Chairman*

Teachers of the social studies are aware of the fact that much effort is wasted in the classroom due to the fact that pupils are lacking in the precise use of fundamental concepts. Hyman Meltzer, in *Children's Social Concepts* (Teachers College, Columbia University, 1926), has made a study to determine the meaning attached to thirty-one economic, social, and political concepts by children; how these meanings are acquired; how they develop in children's usage in the different grades; how they correlate with age, use of language, intelligence, educational age, and the curriculum.

The method used was the personal interview. The technique used in the determination of the most important concepts included the culling of terms from four books and 112 issues of four representative magazines, scattered over a period of four years. An elaborate method of weighting and re-ranking the data was used. A total list of 297 concepts was compiled, and the list of 31 concepts used in the personal interview includes those which received the highest rank in the total list.

Results, based on personal interviews with 333 children in Grades IV to XII, inclusive, show: (1) there is little difference between children's reactions to general and particular concepts; (2) a positive correlation between grasp of concepts and educational age, grade, mental age, chronological age, occupational status, as well as between correct ideas and number of words used; grasp of concepts is directly related to the curriculum; (3) there is a relationship between children's responses and associations with such pattern ideas as are found in textbooks, the family, the newspaper, and social and religious groups.

The results are significant, and are of importance to teachers interested in curriculum construction and method. The technique used in the investigation should encourage further investigations. Important parts of the study are included in an article in the September issue of the *Pedagogical Seminary*.

The supervised study movement has resulted in various attempts to provide mimeographed and printed material for the use of pupils. Charles C. Scheck and M. Althea Orton, of the Rochester, New York, Public Schools, have recently issued an "Experimental Edition" of a 150-page volume, entitled *Directed Study; A Student's Workbook in American History* (World Book Company). The materials, organized about problems for use in the seventh grade, cover the period of colonization through the ratification of the Constitution. Each exercise includes a statement of a problem, an assignment with a number of study references, questions, and a test. Outline maps, map studies, suggestions for plays, references to standard literary selections, exercises for review, charts, and tables provide variations from a formal approach to the study of the different problems. Newer types of tests are used to advantage. The problems vary in demands made upon pupils; the sections dealing with the Constitution seem rather formal for use in the seventh grade. Similar workbooks for the sixth and eighth grades are in preparation.

Teachers of history in junior high schools will be interested in Ely, King, and Stormzand's *Study Guide for Problems in American History: A Pupil's Manual, and Teaching American History by the Problem Method: A Teacher's Manual to Accompany a Pupil's Manual* (Harr Wagner Publishing Company, San Francisco, California). Both publications are "based on Beard and Bagley's *History of the American People*." In the manual for pupils, a volume numbering 180 pages, the materials in each chapter are organized about a major problem, followed by a series of practical exercises, with references for supplementary reading in non-fiction and fiction. Teachers will find the volume full of suggestions; the lists of references furnish leads for the purchase of additional books. The manual for teachers contains valuable suggestions on method, a list of standardized tests, a sample chapter from the pupil's manual, and samples of the newer types of tests, which can be obtained from the publisher of the manuals.

A survey of the teaching of sociology in high schools of Washington by Read Bain appears in the September *School Review*. According to the writer, "This report is the result of an attempt to discover how many secondary schools in Washington are teaching sociology, to determine the preparation of the sociology teachers, to forecast the development of the subject in the high school curriculum, to find out the benefits the pupil derives, and to discuss the interests and obligations of the University of Washington in the development of this phase of the newer education." Forty-eight per cent. of the administrative officers of 266 accredited high schools submitted data which are compiled in this report. The number of high schools offering a course in sociology increased from 31 in 1920, to 59 in 1924, while the number of students enrolled in the courses increased from 789 to 2045. Eighty of the 112 administrators think that sociology should be a required course for high school graduation. The qualifications of teachers receive consideration; the writer stresses the necessity of thorough training in sociology for teachers in order that they may develop a scientific approach toward the subject on the part of the pupils. The "problems" course and the "reformatarian" type of course receive unfavorable criticism.

"Economics in the High School" is discussed by Rudolph Peterson in the October number of the *School Review*. The writer presents a brief sketch of the recent development of the teaching of economics. The purpose of a course in economics at the high school level is "to lead pupils to form correct judgments on economic questions in order that a sound public policy with reference to these questions may result." Subsidiary purposes include:

- (1) The pupil should be led to an understanding of the scope of economic science.
- (2) He should become acquainted with the machinery by which society at present produces and distributes economic goods.
- (3) He should become familiar with the principles

and laws governing economic activity. (4) He should become cognizant of the leading economic problems of the present day and should be encouraged to view them from the economic standpoint. (5) He should be led to regard the present social order as dynamic and should be encouraged to examine its institutions critically."

In a criticism of the fragmentary results usually obtained in high school courses in economics, the writer mentions data from a test given to college students enrolled in an economics course to show that the students who had previously studied economics at the high school level showed no superiority in knowledge of facts and principles over those students who had received no previous instruction in economics. Reasons for poor results obtained in high school courses in economics are: (1) inadequately trained teachers; (2) immaturity of pupils; (3) method of approach as a science, without a consideration of economic problems.

The National Get-Out-the-Vote Club (719 Albee Building, Washington, D. C.) from time to time issued bulletins written by its President, Simon Michelet. Copies of the following publications have been received: *Absentee Voting in the 48 States in the Election of 1926*; *First Time Voters in the Election of 1924*; *The Vote in 1924*; *Third Party Vote in the Presidential Election of 1924*; *Popular Vote for President by States and Political Parties*; *World Voting Record*; *Stay-at-Home Vote and Absentee Voters*; *Forty-Year Growth of the Stay-at-Home Vote*; *Presidential Elections in the United States, 1880-1920*; and *American Women at the Ballot*. The data presented in some of the bulletins are taken from official reports by states to the Secretary of State. The pamphlets are well written, and contain much material not otherwise obtainable by teachers.

Teachers who desire accurate information on the World Court will be interested in publications issued by the League of Nations Non-Partisan Association (6 East 39th Street, New York City). *Essential Facts in Regard to the League of Nations, the World Court, and the International Labor Organization*, by Harrison C. Thomas, is a brief presentation of pertinent facts, and contains a diagram of the organization of the League of Nations. *The Suggested Outline for Teaching the World Court* deals with methods of settling international disputes, the functions of the World Court, its relationship to the League of Nations, and the position of the United States. There is a brief bibliography.

The Colorado Education Association held its annual meeting in three sections during the second week in November. The social science sections, on November 12, presented the following programs. The Eastern Section, at Denver, discussed the general theme: "Practical citizenship—the Teacher as a Citizen," with papers presented by Ira M. Delong, "Beating the Retirement Bill"; A. E. Reed, "The Teacher in Business"; H. Guy Goodsell, "The Teacher and the Community." The Southern Section, at Pueblo, presented the following program: A. H. Hulbert, "A College History Teacher's Estimate of High School Results"; Mrs. J. F. Keating, "The Near East"; Mary McNally, "Teaching Colorado History"; F. L. Geyer, "Europe in 1926." The program of the Western Section, at Gunnison, included the following papers: A. M. Dickerson, "Diagnosis and Remedial Instruction in History and Civics"; Robert Armand, "Projects in Social Science"; H. T. Hatch, "Objectives and Methods in Teaching History and the Social Sciences."

The Social Studies Club of the San Francisco Bay Region, California, held its semi-annual conference on November 13, at Drake's, in Berkeley. Mr. F. M. Hunter, Superintendent of the Oakland schools, spoke on the organization of the control of education. Miss Crystal Harford and a group of pupils from the University High School gave a demonstration lesson, in which they analyzed a problem in Current History, the September meeting of the Assembly of the League of Nations.

The Autumn meeting of the Western Pennsylvania Council for the Social Studies was held at Schenley High School, Pittsburgh, October 23. The following program was presented: Ralph Turner, University of Pittsburgh, "The Place of High School Work in the General Social Science Program"; Percy B. Cooley, Schenley High School, "Education in Western Pennsylvania in Colonial Times."

The Social Science Section of the Educational Conference at Bucknell University, Lewisburg, Pa., in October, presented the following program: J. Lynn Barnard, State Department of Public Instruction, "The Social Science Program in the Junior and Senior High Schools"; R. L. Motz, Bucknell University, "The Vitalizing of History"; H. S. Lloyd, Kingston High School, "The History Notebook"; Paul Cooley, Lewisburg High School, "The Social Science Laboratory."

Notes on Periodical Literature

By GERTRUDE BRAMLETTE RICHARDS, Ph.D.

The purpose of Hector Bywater's article on "The Martial Resources of Soviet Russia" (*Nineteenth Century* for November) is "to bring forward new facts which shed light on the martial strength of present-day Russia, with special reference to the navy....It is quite evident that both the political and economic values of sea power are well understood by the present Moscow executive. Backed by a powerful fleet, their influence in world politics should be immeasurably fortified. Such an armament would make Russia strategically predominant in northern Europe, while the reconstruction of the Black Sea squadron would greatly enhance her political prestige throughout the Near East."

Marchesa Niccolini's article on "A Mediaeval Florentine," in the October issue of the *American Historical Review*, is a delightful picture of a fourteenth century merchant and statesman.

An English view of President Coolidge is presented in the November *Contemporary Review* by S. Maccohy, who says: "Coolidge's social views and attitudes are very representative of those of the controlling elements of American society. They are supported by a powerful and interested Press and the whole enormous weight of business interests. The faction-riven Democratic party has seemed of late to approve rather than to fight the maxim that 'what is good for business is good for the working-man.' A challenge has come from the corn belt because of depressed incomes in that section. If the present wave of prosperity in other sections should recede, other challenges will follow."

Silas Bent's article "Two Souls at War in General Dawes" (December *Scribner's*) is an interesting study of the early career of the Vice-President.

President Calles explains "The Policies of Mexico Today" in the October issue of *Foreign Affairs*, including the oil problem, the land problem, the problem of education and the religious problem.

Sir M. F. O'Dwyer, G.C.I.E., K.C.S.I., summarizes as follows the Indian situation: "Existing communal hostility is a bar to any future political advance and to the progress of India in every direction."

"The tension is an inevitable result of the second and third principles in the Reforms Scheme as interpreted by India's various religions and races. Even if temporarily composed to secure further political power, it is, as past experience shows, certain to break out again."

"If we are to fulfill our responsibility for maintaining peace and promoting prosperity in India, we must get back to the right road. While adhering to the principle of giving qualified Indians an increased share in every branch of the administration, and fostering and strengthening such indigenous germs of self-government as are found to exist, we must abandon the idea of 'responsible government.'"

"Europe needs American help. America can help most by merely continuing the lines of her present policy. If America will only listen to Senator Borah and be ruthless in her debt policy for the full sixty-two years, Europe may be saved from another Great War....So long as Great Britain has to pay 100,000 pounds a day to America, Great Britain will be unable to finance another war in Europe. No other nation in Europe will go to war if Great Britain cannot be depended on to pay the expenses of both sides during and after the war," writes George Glasgow, special correspondent on foreign affairs for the *Manchester Guardian*, in his defense of America's policy, entitled "America and the Debts" (December *Harper's*).

Organizations Which Social Studies Teachers Should Know About

NATIONAL COUNCIL FOR THE SOCIAL STUDIES AND DEPARTMENT OF SOCIAL STUDIES OF THE NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION: President, B. L. Pierce, University of Iowa; Secretary, Edgar Dawson, Hunter College, New York City. Journal: *THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK*, 1623 Ranstead Street, Philadelphia.

NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION: Secretary, J. W. Crabtree, 1201 Sixteenth Street, Washington, D. C. Journal of the *National Education Association*, same address.

AMERICAN HISTORICAL ASSOCIATION: Secretary, John Spencer Bassett, Smith College, Northampton, Mass. Journal: *The American Historical Review*, 1140 Woodward Building, Washington, D. C.

AMERICAN POLITICAL SCIENCE ASSOCIATION: Secretary, Ralston Hayden, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor. Journal: *American Political Science Review*, University of Wisconsin, Madison.

AMERICAN ECONOMIC ASSOCIATION: Secretary, F. S. Deibler, Northwestern University, Evanston, Illinois. Journal: *The American Economic Review*, same address.

AMERICAN SOCIOLOGICAL SOCIETY: Secretary, Ernest W. Burgess, University of Chicago. Journal: *American Journal of Sociology*, same address.

NATIONAL MUNICIPAL LEAGUE: Secretary, Harold W. Dodds, 261 Broadway, New York City. Journal: *National Municipal Review*, same address.

NATIONAL COUNCIL OF GEOGRAPHY TEACHERS: Secretary, G. J. Miller, State Teachers College, Mantana, Michigan. Journal: *The Geography Journal*, same address.

NEW ENGLAND HISTORY TEACHERS ASSOCIATION: Secretary, Horace E. Kidger, Newton High School, Newtonville, Mass.

ASSOCIATION OF HISTORY TEACHERS OF THE MIDDLE STATES AND MARYLAND: Secretary, Lena C. Van Bibber, 129 East North Avenue, Baltimore, Md. Publishes an annual volume of *Proceedings*.

MISSISSIPPI VALLEY HISTORICAL ASSOCIATION: Secretary, Mrs. Clarence S. Paine, Station A, Lincoln, Nebraska. Journal: *Mississippi Valley Historical Review*.

PACIFIC COAST BRANCH OF THE AMERICAN HISTORICAL ASSOCIATION: Secretary, Miss Ebba Dahlin, Care Hoover War Library, Stanford University, California.

Books on History and Government Published in the United States from October 30 to November 27, 1926

LISTED BY CHARLES A. COULOMB, PH.D.
AMERICAN HISTORY

Brosnan, Cornelius J. *History of the State of Idaho*. N. Y.: Scribner. 273 pp. \$1.20.

Dealey, James Q. *Foreign policies of the United States; their bases and development*. Boston: Ginn & Co. 410 pp. (9 p. bibl.). \$2.80.

Etten, William J., compiler. *A citizen's history of Grand Rapids, Michigan*. Grand Rapids, Mich.: A. P. Johnson Co. 213 pp. \$1.00.

Fite, Emerson D., and Freeman, A. *A book of old maps, delineating American history from the earliest days down to the close of the Revolutionary War*. Cambridge: Harvard Univ. Press. 315 pp. \$25.00.

Folwell, William W. *A history of Minnesota*, Vol. 3. St. Paul, Minn.: Minn. Hist. Soc. 618 pp. \$5.00.

Houghton, Vinal E., compiler. *The story of an old New England town; history of Lee, Maine*. Lee, Maine: [The Author.] 248 pp. \$3.00.

Kingston, Ceylon S., and Oliphant, J. O. *An outline of the history of the Pacific northwest with special reference to Washington*. Cheney, Wash.: State Normal School. 101 pp. \$1.00.

Kuykendall, Ralph S. *A history of Hawaii*. N. Y.: Macmillan. 385 pp. (2 p. bibl.). \$2.00.

Laury, Preston A. *The Scotch-Irish of Northampton County, Pa.* Easton, Pa.: Northampton Co. Hist. and Genealogical Society. 604 pp. \$5.00.

Mahan, Bruce E. *Old Fort Crawford and the frontier*. Iowa City, Ia.: State Hist. Soc. 364 pp. (47 p. bibl.). \$3.00.

Maurice, Maj.-Gen. Sir Frederick B. *Statesmen and soldiers of the Civil War*. Boston: Little, Brown. 184 pp. \$3.00.

Paxson, Henry D. *Sketches and map of a trip from Philadelphia to Tinicum Island, Delaware County, Pa.* Phila.: [Author, 1421 Chestnut St.] 248 pp. \$5.00.

Quick, Herbert, and Quick, Edward. *Mississippi Steamboat' [a history of steamboating on the Mississippi]*. N. Y.: Holt. 356 pp. (2 p. bibl.). \$5.00.

ANCIENT HISTORY

Baikie, Rev. James. *The Amarna age; a study of the crisis of the ancient world*. N. Y.: Macmillan. 481 pp. \$3.50.

Baynes, Norman. *The Historia Augusta; its date and purpose*. N. Y.: Oxford Univ. Press. 150 pp. \$2.50.

Capart, Jean, and Werbrouck, Marcelle. *Thebes, the glory of a great past*. N. Y.: Dial Press. 362 pp. (3 p. bibl.). \$20.00.

Robinson, T. H. *The decline and fall of the Hebrew Kingdoms; Israel in the seventh and eighth centuries*. B. C. N. Y.: Oxford Univ. Press. 286 pp. \$1.50.

Rostovtzeff, M. *A history of the ancient world*, Vol. 1. *The Orient and Greece*. N. Y.: Oxford Univ. Press. 444 pp. \$5.00.

Westermann, W. L., and Kraemer, C. J., Jr., compilers and editors. *Greek papyri in the library of Cornell University*. N. Y.: Columbia Univ. Press. 306 pp. \$10.00.

ENGLISH HISTORY

Barton, Sir Dunbar P., and others. *The story of the Inns of Court*. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin. 320 pp. \$5.00.

Ellis, T. P. *Welsh tribal law and custom in the middle ages*; 2 vols. N. Y.: Oxford Univ. Press. \$26.75.

Garrod, D. A. E. *The upper paleolithic age in Britain*. N. Y.: Oxford Univ. Press. 212 pp. \$3.50.

Henry, Robert L. *Contracts in the local courts of mediæval England*. N. Y.: Longmans. 250 pp. \$6.00.

Hutton, Edward. *The Franciscans in England, 1224-1538*. N. Y.: Oxford Univ. Press. 325 pp. \$2.00.

Klingberg, Frank J. *The anti-slavery movement in England; a study in English humanitarianism*. New Haven: Yale Univ. Press. 402 pp. \$4.00.

Lunt, W. E. *The valuation of Norwich [A. D. 1254]*. N. Y.: Oxford Univ. Press. 886 pp. \$9.35.

Wagner, Henry R. *Sir Francis Drake's voyage around the world*. San Francisco: John Howell. 500 pp. \$10.00.

Willobie, Henry. *Willobie, his Avisas, 1594 [reprint of a text in the British Museum]*. N. Y.: Dutton. 271 pp. \$2.50.

EUROPEAN HISTORY

- Allison, John M. S. Thiers and the French monarchy, 1797-1848. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin. 379 pp. \$5.00.
 Davis, William S. Europe since Waterloo. N. Y.: Century Co. 983 pp. (12 p. bibl.). \$6.00.
 Engels, Friedrich. The peasant war in Germany. N. Y.: International Publishers. 191 pp. \$1.50.
 Happold, F. Crossfield. The adventure of man [a brief history of the world]. N. Y.: Harcourt. 255 pp. \$2.00.
 Hill, Charles E. The Danish sound dues and the command of the Baltic. Durham, N. C.: Duke Univ. Press. 314 pp. (12 p. bibl.). \$5.00.

THE WORLD WAR AND RECONSTRUCTION

- Lucas, Sir Charles. The Empire at war; Vol. 5. N. Y.: Oxford Univ. Press. 514 pp. \$8.50.
 Robertson, Field Marshall Sir William. Soldiers and statesmen, 1914-1918; 2 vols. N. Y.: Scribner. 349, 336 pp. \$12.00 set.

MISCELLANEOUS

- Scherer, James A. B. The romance of Japan through the ages. N. Y.: Doran. 326 pp. \$3.50.
 Summers, A. Montague. The history of witchcraft and demonology. N. Y.: Knopf. 368 pp. (31 p. bibl.). \$5.00.
 Wilson, H. W. Battleships in action; 2 vols. [A history of naval warfare from the days of the first armored ships to the present.] Boston: Little, Brown. 351, 397 pp. (6 p. bibl.). \$10.00.

BIOGRAPHY

- Contreras, Captain Alonso de. The life of Captain Alonso de Contreras, written by himself (1582-1633). [Memoirs of a Spanish adventurer.] N. Y.: Knopf. 288 pp. \$3.50.
 Coolidge, Calvin. Foundations of the republic; speeches and addresses. N. Y.: Scribner. 469 pp. \$2.50.
 Sedgwick, Henry D. Cortés, the conqueror. Indianapolis: Bobbs-Merrill. 390 pp. (4 p. bibl.). \$5.00.
 Du Pont, Col. H. A. Rear-Admiral Samuel F. Du Pont, U. S. N. N. Y.: Natl. American Soc., 44 E. 23d St. 297 pp. \$4.00.
 Guttridge, George H. David Hartley, M.P., an advocate of conciliation, 1774-1783. Berkeley, Cal.: Univ. of Cal. Press. 109 pp. \$1.25.
 Brinton, Selwyn J. C. The golden age of the Medici (Cosimo, Piero, Lorenzo de Medici), 1439-1494. Boston: Small, Maynard. 248 pp. \$4.00.
 Goyan, Georges. Cardinal Mercier. N. Y.: Longmans. 92 pp. \$1.25.
 Alvord, Clarence W. Lord Shelburne and the founding of British-American good will. N. Y.: Oxford Univ. Press. 28 pp. 85c.
 Thayer, William R. The letters of William Roscoe Thayer. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin. 448 pp. \$5.00.

GOVERNMENT AND POLITICS

- Bausman, Frederick. Facing Europe. N. Y.: Century Co. 339 pp. \$3.00.
 Fitzhugh, St. George R. The truth of history; a study in political development. Richmond, Va.: Old Dominion Press. 167 pp. \$2.00.
 Hanford, A. Chester. Problems in municipal government. Chicago. A. W. Shaw. 468 pp. \$4.00.
 Hubbard, B. V. Making America safe for democracy [a plea for the referendum]. Chicago: Chicago Legal News Co., 30 N. Dearborn St. 204 pp. \$1.75.
 MacIver, R. M. The modern state. N. Y.: Oxford Univ. Press. 516 pp. \$7.00.
 Moon, Parker T. Imperialism and world politics. N. Y.: Macmillan. 597 pp. \$3.50.
 Oppenheimer, Franz. The state; its history and development viewed sociologically. N. Y.: Vanguard Press. 80 Fifth Ave. 317 pp. 50c.
 Woody, Carroll H. The Chicago primary of 1926; a study in election methods. Chicago: Univ. of Chicago Press. 306 pp. \$1.50.

Historical Articles in Current Periodicals

COMPILED BY LEO F. STOCK
GENERAL AND MISCELLANEOUS

- Governmental Responsibility in Tort. Edwin M. Borchard (*Yale Law Review*, November).
 Imprisonment for Debt. Richard Ford (*Michigan Law Review*, November).
 Relations of Egypt to Israel and Judah in the Age of Isaiah, II. Harold Weiner (*Ancient Egypt*, September).
 Ypres: the Story of a Thousand Years. Maj. A. F. Becke (*Journal of Royal Artillery*, October).
 Primo de Rivera and the New Spain. Dudley Heathcote (*Fortnightly Review*, November).
 The Awakening of Abyssinia. Capt. Owen Tweedy (*Atlantic Monthly*, December).
 The Government of Iraq. Quincy Wright (*American Political Science Review*, November).

THE BRITISH EMPIRE

- Nationhood in the British Commonwealth. W. P. M. Kennedy (*Contemporary Review*, November).
 Advisory Committees in British Administration. John A. Fairlie (*American Political Science Review*, November).
 The Service of the Royal Regiment of Artillery in the Peninsular War, 1808 to 1814 (continued). Major J. H. Leslie (*Journal of Royal Artillery*, October).
 Nelson's Tutor. Percy C. Standing (*Journal of the Royal United Service Institution*, November).
 Glasgow's Ancient Craft Gilds (continued). John C. Black (*Scots Magazine*, December).
 Slavery on the British West India Plantations in the 18th Century. Frank W. Pitman (*Journal of Negro History*, October).

GREAT WAR AND ITS PROBLEMS

- The Evolution of Artillery in the Great War (continued). Major A. F. Brooke (*Journal of Royal Artillery*, October).
 Medical Service in the French Lines (continued). Col. Bailey K. Ashford (*Military Surgeon*, November).
 The Franco-German Negotiations. John Bell (*Fortnightly Review*, November).

UNITED STATES AND DEPENDENCIES

- Jurisdiction at the Maritime Frontier. Edwin D. Dickinson (*Harvard Law Review*, November).
 Evolution of the Doctrine of Territorial Incorporation. Frederic R. Coudert (*Columbia Law Review*, November).
 Historical Development of the Law of Business Competition (continued). Franklin D. Jones (*Yale Law Review*, November).
 Early American Price-Fixing Legislation. Arthur S. Alton (*Michigan Law Review*, November).
 Bureau Chiefs in the National Administration of the United States, II. Arthur W. Macmahon (*American Political Science Review*, November).
 Rural Economic Progress of the Negro in Virginia. James S. Russell (*Journal of Negro History*, October).
 America: an Episode in the History of the World. Hendrik W. van Loon (*Woman's Home Companion*, December). III. The jovial genius of Benjamin Franklin.
 Presidential Campaigns. Meade Minnigerode (*Saturday Evening Post*, November 20). "Putting on the Roof" (1789).
 The Princeton Explosion. Commander A. H. Miles (*U. S. Naval Institute Proceedings*, November).
 The Federal Government and the Negro Soldier, 1861-1865. Fred A. Shannon (*Journal of Negro History*, October).
 News Gathering for Lincoln. Ida M. Tarbell (*Ladies Home Journal*, December).

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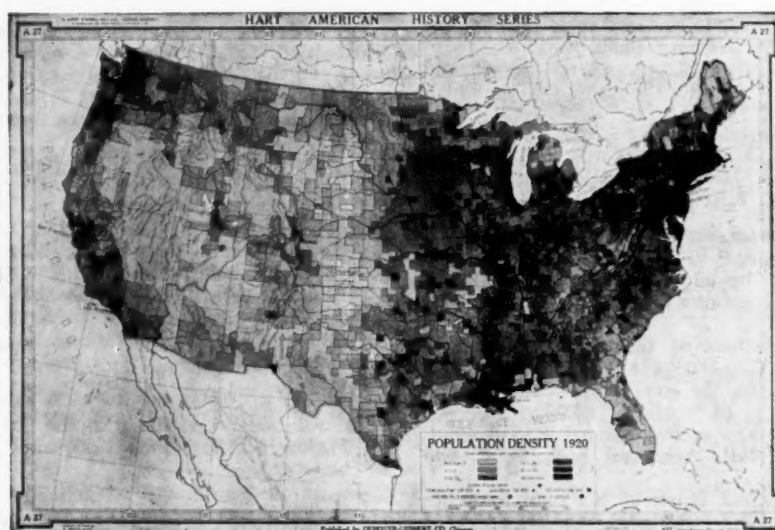
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Density
1920



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